THE CAMBRIDGE MODERN HISTORY ATLAS

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THE CAMBRIDGE MODERN HISTORY ATLAS

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PREFACE

THE arrangement of the Maps contained in *The Cambridge Modern History Atlas*, the publication of which has been retarded by unforeseen circumstances, is explained in the ensuing Introduction. This arrangement follows so far as is possible the order of the narrative in *The Cambridge Modern History*, and an endeavour has been made to insert all the place names that occur in it.

At the same time, the entire series is designed to stand by itself as an Atlas of Modern History. The general idea of the Atlas is to illustrate, in a series of maps of Europe and of its different countries, as well as of other parts of the world associated with the progress of European History, the course of events by which the Europe of the fifteenth century has been transformed into the Europe of the present day. Some of the maps are designed to illustrate political divisions, others territorial changes, wars by land or sea, the growth of particular States, the course of religious changes, and the history of colonial expansion.

The Introduction has been written by Mr E. A. Benians, Fellow and Lecturer of St John's College, who was entrusted by the Editors with the general work of constructing the maps and revising them during reproduction, and who has carried out this work under their supervision. They desire to place on record their sense of the great ability and unremitting care with which he has executed his laborious and responsible task, spread over more than four years. During the greater part of the present year he has been assisted in the revision of certain of the maps and of the Introduction by Mr H. F. Russell-Smith, of St John's College, Allen Scholar of the University, who has also compiled the Indexes to the Introduction.

In a historical atlas of this kind it is manifestly impossible to enumerate all the materials which have been used in the drawing of the several maps. In the present instance constant reference has been made, as a matter of course, to the great historical atlas of Spruner; and the more recent atlases of Droysen and Poole (*The Oxford Historical Atlas*) have also been of much service, together with those of Vidal de La Blache, Schrader and Hertslet.

The Editors desire to return their thanks for much valuable aid of various kinds received in the course of the preparation of the Atlas, from contributors to *The Cambridge Modern History* and from other

scholars. Among the former are Mr E. Armstrong (Vice-Provost of Queen's College, Oxford), Professor J. B. Bury, Mr F. A. Kirkpatrick, Sir William Lee-Warner, G.C.S.I., Professor Pares, Dr Tanner, Mr H. W. V. Temperley, Mrs K. D. Vernon; among the latter, Professor Marczali (Budapest), Mr R. S. Rait (Fellow and Tutor of New College, Oxford), Mr A. E. A. W. Smyth (Librarian of the House of Commons), and Dr Williams (Research Fellow of the School of Russian Studies, Liverpool). Mr R. Dunlop, one of our contributors, made Maps 27, 37, 38, and 47, and is responsible for them. Mr P. E. Roberts, also a contributor, revised the spelling of the Indian names in Maps 64, 99, and 122–125.

Liberal use has been made in the construction of Maps 113 and 114 of Mr E. Porritt's *Unreformed House of Commons*, 1903, and of the map in that work.

In addition, the thanks of the Editors are due to the Government of the United States for permission to base Map 76 on Plate XVII (Population Volume, *Tenth Census of United States*, 1880) and Map 77 on Plate VIII (Part I, Population, Volume I, *Twelfth Census of United States*, 1900); and to the Clarendon Press and Messrs W. & A. K. Johnston for permission to base Map 27 on Map XXXI of *The Oxford Historical Atlas of Modern Europe*, edited by Mr R. L. Poole.

The Maps in this Atlas have been executed by Messrs Stanford, to whom, as well as to Mr John Bolton, the Editors desire to express their obligation for the care and attention given to the work at its successive stages.

A. W. W.
G. W. P.
S. L.

November, 1911.

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION.

For this edition the maps and text have been revised and corrected by the Assistant Editor and a subject index has been added by him to the list of maps. No new maps are included, and the scope of the existing maps has not been extended to illustrate events that have happened since 1910, as the object of the Atlas is to illustrate the other volumes of *The Cambridge Modern History*. The Assistant Editor takes this opportunity of thanking those reviewers and contributors to the *History* who have made suggestions for the improvement of the maps.

E. A. B.

May, 1924.

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INTRODUCTION.

The numbers of the maps described are placed in the margin—in black type when the principal description of the map is being given, in ordinary type when an allusion only is made to a map. Indexes of the maps described and of the places mentioned are given at the end of the Introduction.

Throughout the Middle Ages the various peoples who entered Europe in the declining years of the Roman Empire were uniting in definite groups and forming a number of separate States. This process of nation- and State-forming has no definite point of beginning or end. But during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, it proceeded so fast that, before the end of the latter, it was evident that in western Europe new States had been formed which could assert both their independence of the medieval Empire and their authority over local liberty and private right. Thus, though the Empire did not disappear at this time, its place was taken by a family of States, of which it was at once the oldest and the weakest member. In the course of a long and almost ceaseless conflict between these new States, the existing political system of Europe has been slowly shaped. It is the object of this Introduction to summarise the series of territorial changes by which this result has been brought about, and thus to trace the process of consolidation and expansion by which the States that were in being in the fifteenth century attained their present form, and the steps by which other States arose and divided with them the lands where no effective political consolidation had taken place during the Middle Ages. We have to observe how, in the course of modern history, the European political system, which in the fifteenth century included only western Europe, has been extended to include the whole of Europe, and how, as European societies have been planted in other continents, new lands have been drawn by commerce and political dependence into its political life until almost the whole known world forms a single political system. We have to see how the formation of this system has been modified by the idea of a Balance of Power, handed down from the precocious political experience of Italy, by the existence of the Holy Roman Empire, which, for the

States that formed themselves within its borders, provided a framework of law and order, bridling the worst manifestations of power, and preserving for a long time a multitude of small States which could not otherwise have maintained their independence, and, above all, by the forces of nationality and geography—stronger in the long run than diplomacy, however astute, and force, however great.

1, 41 First, we may observe, in brief outline, the general course of the change that has taken place. At the end of the Middle Ages, France was the strongest monarchy in Europe and the process of change began with her expansion. On her eastern frontier, the Burgundian family had attempted to found a middle kingdom along the lower course of the Rhine, the establishment of which would have given a very different course to the history of Europe. With the failure of that attempt and the division of the Burgundian inheritance began that eastward expansion of France which was for a long time one great trend of modern territorial change. At the other extremity also of the ancient kingdom of Lotharingia, in Italy, France sought to extend her dominion—in this direction, outside of her natural frontiers. Here, the issue was soon decided. In the first thirty years of the sixteenth century, Italy passed indeed under a foreign, but not under a French, yoke, and her political form and place were fixed substantially as they were to remain, until, in the nineteenth century, the movement for unity made her for the first time in her history a single and a great Power, and changed altogether her relations to the other countries of Europe.

A check was placed on the rise of France by the formation of the Habsburg Empire. In the early years of the sixteenth century, by fortunate marriages, inheritances, and conquests, a mighty State came into being which stretched from the plains of the Danube across Germany to the North Sea and the English Channel, included most of the Iberian peninsula, controlled Italy, and exploited America. This unwieldy conglomeration of territories was rapidly formed, and, though, in the middle of the sixteenth century, it divided into two parts, it was able for a century to exercise a dominant influence on the European political system. Two forces modified the influence which the Habsburg Empire might otherwise have exerted—the one, a great religious movement, the Reformation, which weakened its power in Germany, and accelerated the process by which the Holy Roman Empire was dissolved into a group of States—the other, the intrusion into the European polity of the Ottoman Turks. By pressing on the frontiers of the Habsburg Empire in south-eastern Europe and the Mediterranean, the Turks not only extended their own conquests, but they weakened the resistance of the Habsburgs to French expansion and to the disruptive tendencies apparent in Germany. Nevertheless, in western Europe the Habsburg Empire was the controlling factor. Its formation, its losses to France and the Turks, its influence on political tendencies in Germany, and the

outgrowth from it of two new States—the Swiss Confederation and the United Netherlands—comprise the principal territorial changes of the sixteenth century. The two new States that were formed, the one in the first quarter, the other in the last quarter, of the sixteenth century, were defensive leagues which became States in the course of a struggle against the political or religious oppression of the Habsburgs. With different careers both have guarded their independence and the integrity of their territory down to the present day.

In the early years of the seventeenth century, the Empire, divided by 41, 51
the Reformation into hostile camps, was plunged into a religious civil war. At the same time the power of the Spanish Habsburgs began to wane and they lost their dominion in European politics. These two changes concurred to favour the expansion of France. The Thirty Years' War exposed Germany to her attack and thus made easier her eastward advance; the existence of Holland and Switzerland provided her with natural allies; the decline of Spain removed the greatest check on her ambition. Thus, in the seventeenth century, France continually increased her power in the debatable lands on her eastern frontier. Her advance was further aided by the results of these long wars on the Empire, for its multitude of constituent States gained independence in all but name, and were thus the more easily exposed to her influence. Another Power also, Sweden, found her profit in the misfortunes of Germany. North-eastern Europe had its own political problems. Round the Baltic raged a struggle for trade and dominion from which Sweden emerged triumphant over Russia, Denmark, and Poland. In the troubles of Germany she found a new advantage, and, preying on the north of Germany as France did on the west, was able to complete her dominion over the Baltic. The two rising Powers, cooperating in Germany, drew the political problems of Eastern and Western Europe, for the first time, into conjunction. The rise of Sweden was temporary, the power of France lasting. Sweden had not sufficient natural opportunities, and her dominion was contrary to the real balance of material strength. Strong enemies rose to contest it with her. In the confusion of Germany the Electors of Brandenburg formed a powerful State; while, on her eastern frontier, Russia gained unity and independence. At the end of the seventeenth century, turning from east to west, from an Asiatic to an European career, Russia planted herself on the Baltic and the Black Sea. Her advance against the Ottoman empire was premature and was arrested for a while; but Austria at this time finally turned the tables on her ancient foe. The Ottoman empire reached its zenith in 1672. Decline followed swiftly; before the end of the seventeenth century, Hungary and Transylvania were secured by Austria, and some temporary victories over the Turks in the Morea illumined the decay of the Venetian State with a ray of its old glory. In the early eighteenth century disaster still beset the retreating Ottoman empire.

While these changes took place in Europe, England turned her energies to rich fields of opportunity east and west, hitherto monopolised by Spain and Portugal, and began the building of Greater Britain. Holland did likewise, but more for commerce than for empire. Both were deeply concerned when, towards the end of the seventeenth century, there appeared the possibility of a mighty political transformation in Europe by the union of the dominions of France and Spain, and by the addition to the already overwhelming power of the French monarchy of the wealth of the Spanish colonial empire. That transformation they prevented, and in the course of the struggle England, now become Great Britain, gained substantial advantages in the colonial world. Extensive changes in Europe also followed. The expansion of France was checked, and the Austrian branch of the Habsburgs took the place of the Spanish in the Netherlands and Italy, while Savoy was strengthened as a buffer State between France and Austria on the Italian frontier.

51, 63 Between the Peace of Utrecht and the French Revolution there was little change in western Europe. France and England fought a long duel; but, though it had great results in the expulsion of France from America and India, it did not affect the political form of Europe. In Germany and eastern Europe, however, great changes were worked out. A powerful kingdom of Prussia was formed, whose rise, at the expense of Austria and Sweden, to be almost the strongest military Power in Europe was the chief feature of the period. Russia entered the European circle definitely and decisively, advancing against Sweden and Turkey. Austria gained some compensation for her declining influence in Germany out of the decaying empire of the Turks. Suddenly, these three Powers agreed to divide the helpless kingdom of Poland, which thenceforth disappeared from history. As the eighteenth century worked itself out it left Spain in decay; Great Britain deprived of most of Greater Britain by a political cataclysm, the herald of a great change in the colonial world; France on the verge of revolution; Prussia and Russia two new great Powers, conterminous, Prussia stretching across Germany with a foothold on the Rhine, a foothold in South Germany, but the bulk of her territories in the north, Russia planted securely on the Baltic and the Black Sea; Austria strong in south-eastern Europe, but weak beyond—in all, a Europe of half-a-dozen Great Powers, whose balance, slowly worked out by continual readjustment, was to be suddenly overturned by the Revolutionary Wars and the genius of Napoleon.

63, 94 In 1795 began twenty years of territorial change, in the course of which the political system of Europe was subjected to continual reconstruction. The impetus of the Revolution carried the French to the Rhine; the genius of Napoleon carried them to the conquest of central and southern Europe. In Italy, Napoleon swept away Sardinia, Genoa, Venice, the States of the Church, and the Austrian dominion, added a large area to the French empire, and formed of the remainder, first,

a group of republics, and then a group of kingdoms and principalities under his own influence. In Germany, he swept away the ecclesiastical principalities, the Holy Roman Empire, and the great majority of the small States, cut down the territory and power of Austria and Prussia, and formed out of the multitude of small States a group of larger States, which he reorganised as the Confederation of the Rhine. He began the reconstruction of the kingdom of Poland in the grand duchy of Warsaw. These changes at last raised a resistance before which he succumbed; and an attempt was then made to restore the political order of the later eighteenth century.

The great resettlement of 1815 curbed the dangerous power of 102, 141
France, gave back to Austria and Prussia their old positions, and restored that balance of power which Napoleon had destroyed. The German States were formed into a vast but feeble Confederation under the joint but unequalised leadership of Austria and Prussia, and Italy was placed again under the heel of Austria. Neither of these settlements was destined to be lasting. The expansion of Russia at the expense of Sweden, Prussia, and Turkey, by the addition of Finland, new parts of the old kingdom of Poland, and Bessarabia, promised and secured greater permanence. The nineteenth century saw great changes. Italy freed herself from Austrian rule, and, gaining unity, entered as a great State into the political system of Europe. The Germanic Confederation was rent asunder by the rivalry of Austria and Prussia. Austria was expelled, and a new State, a German empire under the hegemony of Prussia, took the place of the old Confederation, and enlarged its boundaries at the expense of France by acquiring the long-disputed middle lands of Alsace and Lorraine. In the Balkan peninsula there was continual change. Austria and Russia gained territory at the expense of the Ottoman empire, and the subject nationalities, one by one, rose against Ottoman rule and gained their independence. The Balkan peninsula thus broke up into a group of small States, of which the Ottoman empire, with its receding frontiers in Europe and its larger dominions in Asia Minor and Syria, remains the most important.

Outside of Europe, there has been an even greater transformation. 100,
In the old fields of colonisation nations had been gradually forming, and, 101, 140
following the example of the English American colonies, they asserted their independence. In Central and South America a group of Spanish and Portuguese republics now attests the success of Spanish and Portuguese colonisation. The United States of America expanded across the continent and commenced to conquer dominions beyond the seas. But this contraction of European political dominion in other continents proved only temporary. In the early years of the nineteenth century, the Russian empire in Asia and the British empire, expanding by colonisation and conquest in Australia, Africa, North America, and Asia, represented the only considerable European forces in other continents.

Both of these empires continued to grow unceasingly. A mighty dominion in India, vast dependencies in Africa, and a group of Anglo-Saxon nations in Africa, America, and Australia, and many smaller possessions, represent the unexhausted results of British colonial activity. But other European Powers also once again entered the colonial field. They divided Africa and the Pacific Islands between them, and gained spheres of influence in eastern Asia. While Spain has virtually withdrawn from the colonial field, France is once more a great colonial Power, the Dutch have held their own, and the German empire has acquired extensive possessions. In eastern Asia Japan now competes with Europe and resists the advance of Russia. Along such lines as these, the political system of fifteenth century Europe, with its promise of States and nations forming and preparing to dispute for dominion and power, has been transformed into the compacter political system of twentieth century Europe, with its military empires, republics, and monarchies, its unstable balance of power, and its worldwide field of competition and contest.

SECTION I.

EUROPE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

Our first endeavour must be to present a picture of the European 1
political system in the later fifteenth century. In western and central Europe the principal States were the Holy Roman Empire—a loose federation of some four hundred duchies, counties, and towns, over which the Dukes of Austria, with their extensive though scattered dominions, exercised the Imperial power—France, England—with its dependency, Ireland—Scotland, the States of the Iberian peninsula, and the States of Italy; in northern and eastern Europe, the Scandinavian Union, the group of Russian principalities under the Tartar yoke, Poland, Lithuania, Bohemia, Hungary, and the Ottoman empire. Of these large States,
France had perhaps the greatest degree of unity. In France, a process 8
of internal consolidation had been proceeding for several centuries. The power of the Crown had been steadily extended along the great river valleys—the Seine, the Loire, the Garonne, and the Rhone—and, one by one, the great fiefs were being transformed into royal domain. During the later thirteenth and the early fourteenth century, Champagne, Chartres, the Dauphiné, and Guyenne were all acquired. Of the great fiefs which remained to disintegrate the kingdom at the accession of Louis XI in 1461, the most important were the duchies of Burgundy and Britanny and the county of Anjou. Burgundy was seized by Louis XI in 1477, on the death of Charles the Bold. Britanny was a single province and not, like Burgundy or Anjou, one of a large group of territories. But it was more sharply severed by race than was Burgundy from the remainder of France. By the marriage, first of Charles VIII in 1491, and then of Louis XII in 1498, with Anne, the heiress of Britanny, this important province was firmly united to the French kingdom. It was the last fief which bore the character of a separate sovereignty, though its independence was not as dangerous to the unity of France as the possession of Burgundy by a foreign Power had been. The Duke of Anjou held not only Anjou, but also the counties of Provence and Maine, within France, as well as the duchy of Lorraine without, and he had, in addition, a claim to the throne of Naples. In 1480, all the

possessions of Anjou except Lorraine reverted to the Crown of France. The acquisition of Provence, never before counted part of France, was most important. It brought the French frontiers to the Alps. The duchy of Orleans was another great appanage. It was united to the Crown on the accession of Louis XII, in 1498, and with it the county of Blois. Thus, at the end of the fifteenth century, France was definitely passing from the feudal to the monarchical *régime*. The consolidation of the kingdom was assured, though the process was not complete. One by one, during the sixteenth century, the other great fiefs were effectively absorbed: the viscounty of Narbonne in 1507, the county of Angoulême in 1515, the duchy of Alençon in 1525, the duchy of Bourbon and the county of La Marche in 1527, the county of Forez in 1531, the counties of Armagnac, Foix, Périgord, and Vendôme in 1589, and the viscounty of Béarn in 1607.

The external expansion of France was closely connected with this process of consolidation. It was a natural preliminary to expansion that France should free herself from foreign dominion. A political connexion of centuries between France and England was all but severed when, in 1453, the English were finally expelled from all their French possessions save Calais. In 1462, Louis XI temporarily acquired Roussillon and Cerdagne and brought the French frontier at this point to a natural boundary. The struggle between France and Burgundy not only prevented the foundation of a separate power on the Rhine, a middle kingdom between France and Germany, pressing on the vulnerable side of France, but yielded for the growth of the French kingdom a part of the Burgundian lands. In 1477 Louis XI laid hold of Picardy and the Somme towns as well as the duchy of Burgundy, and put forward claims to Artois, Franche Comté, and Charolais (Charolles). The annexation of Provence in 1486 was a natural addition to France, and carried her frontiers from the Rhone to the Alps. Thus France grew to south and east. Both political and geographical conditions marked these out for her as natural directions of expansion. To make sure of Roussillon and the French part of the kingdom of Navarre, to add Artois and Franche Comté, to annex the north-western provinces of Savoy, and to complete the expulsion of the English by the acquisition of Calais, seemed the things most needed to complete her geographical unity and her power of self-protection.

7 The Iberian peninsula, cut off from the rest of Europe by the Pyrenees, forms geographically a distinct area. Of the various Christian States that had grown up in the course of the long struggle for the expulsion of the Moors, four only remained in the fifteenth century. Of these, the largest and strongest was Castile, which occupied the great centre of the peninsula, holding the whole Biscay coast, with an outlet to the Atlantic in the plain of the Guadalquivir and another to the Mediterranean in the plain of the Segura. Descending thus to sea

and ocean, it completely surrounded, on the land side, the kingdom of Granada, the last fortress in Europe of the retreating Moorish Power, and cut off its fellow Christian Powers from any further opportunity of expansion at the expense of the common enemy. Second in size to Castile was the kingdom of Portugal, lying along the Atlantic side of the peninsula, with frontiers to the east which have not shifted in modern history, though the whole kingdom at one time suffered a temporary absorption into the Spanish monarchy (1580–1640). On the eastern side of Castile, rather smaller than Portugal, and with its base on the Mediterranean, was the triangular kingdom of Aragon, which, together with Castile, had absorbed all the smaller Christian kingdoms except Navarre. Aragon, however, was more than a peninsular Power. On the north-east frontier she overlapped the Pyrenees, and included the counties of Roussillon and Cerdagne, till Louis XI acquired them temporarily in 1462. Stretching across the western Mediterranean, she held the Balearic Isles, Sardinia, finally gained in 1428, and Sicily, conquered in 1282, and incorporated in 1409. On the throne of Naples, also, sat an Aragonese prince. The fourth State was the little kingdom of Navarre, still preserving its independence on the northern frontier of the peninsula. It lay astride the Pyrenees, partly in France and partly in Spain, and the king of Navarre held also the viscounty of Béarn.

The great question of the fifteenth century between the Iberian kingdoms was how far the process of consolidation would be carried, and whether it would be continued by the union of Castile with Portugal or with Aragon. Portugal had been gaining maritime and colonial interests, Aragon Mediterranean interests. In 1469 Isabel of Castile married Ferdinand of Aragon. Isabel became Queen of Castile in 1474, Ferdinand King of Aragon in 1479. The two kingdoms, though not consolidated, were united in 1506, and the future character of Spain was determined. The combined kingdoms conquered Granada in 1492, sweeping away thereby the last vestige of Moorish power in Europe, received back Roussillon and Cerdagne from France in 1493, and conquered the southern half of Navarre in 1512; so that only two separate States then remained in the peninsula. This process of consolidation was of the utmost importance. Coupled with the expansion over-sea, which began with the voyages of Columbus, it gave Spain the internal strength and external opportunity which enabled her to contend with France for dominion in Italy and hegemony in Europe. With her Mediterranean possessions, Spain had a natural interest in Italian affairs which led on to great results. With a large Atlantic coast-line, good harbours in the north, and one great harbour, Cadiz, in the south, she was drawn naturally to those over-sea enterprises in which her American dominion began. In addition to these two natural directions of growth, she was suddenly drawn in a third direction, the most important of all. In 1496 Philip the Fair, the son of Maximilian of Austria, married

Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. In 1498 Joanna became the heiress of the Spanish dominions. Thus was brought about in the course of time a union of Spain and Austria which made of the Spanish monarchy a gigantic political force. Spain ceased to be simply an Iberian, Mediterranean, and colonial Power and became part of a great Empire with interests in central and eastern Europe. Thus the activity of France first disturbed the European political system; but the sudden expansion of Spain overturned it.

16, In the British Isles there were two kingdoms—England with her
23, dependencies, Wales and Ireland, of which the latter was but partially
27 subdued, and Scotland, her hostile neighbour. Save that the possession of Berwick was disputed, the frontier between the two had remained unchanged since the reign of Henry II. Their union, though much sought, did not take place until the end of the Tudor period, 1603, when Scotland gave a king to Great Britain, and the complete incorporation of the two kingdoms was not effected for more than another century, 1707. Ireland was conquered in the reign of Henry II; but the actual English dominion was for a long time limited to the Pale, which, until the sixteenth century, fluctuated in extent, and outside of which the country belonged to the Irish. The conquest of the country was completed in the seventeenth century, and in 1800 it was incorporated in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Wales was conquered by Edward I, but was not finally incorporated until 1535, when its division into shires was completed. Of the Welsh Marches, parts formed the new Welsh shires, and parts were added to the bordering English counties. Monmouthshire remained a Welsh county until the reign of Charles II. The Orkney and Shetland Islands had been Norwegian dependencies. They were pledged to Scotland in 1468 and incorporated in the process of time. The English county divisions underwent little change during the Tudor period. Hexhamshire was included in Northumberland in 1572, the franchises of Tynedale and Redesdale after the accession of James I, after which the English and Scottish Marches were called the Middle Shires. During Henry VIII's reign a change was made in the ecclesiastical divisions by the creation of the six new sees of Peterborough, Oxford, Chester, Gloucester, Bristol, and Westminster, of which the last-named had a life of ten years only. From this time the dioceses remained unchanged till the reign of Queen Victoria[1].

Ever since the conquest of England by Normandy, the kings of England had held some of the great fiefs of France. In the fifteenth century everything was lost, save the seaport town of Calais. England ceased to be a partly insular and partly continental Power, and became wholly

[1] In the map the counties are shown as they were at the completion of the county organisation, the dioceses as they were after Henry VIII's creation of the new sees, except that Westminster is not shown.

insular. Her geographical position would have allowed of her concentrating on insular interests; but, by long tradition and the possession of a gate of entrance into France, she was drawn towards continental politics. At the end of the fifteenth century, it was a doubtful question whether she would seek the natural development of an insular State, over-sea, following where Portugal and Castile had led, or whether she would take up again her continental ambitions. While commerce had its centre in the Mediterranean, her position did not favour maritime expansion. The discovery of the New World changed the situation, since England was very favourably situated for American enterprise and Atlantic trade. The voyages of Cabot and the discovery of Newfoundland were the starting-point of Greater Britain; but England's connexion with the Continent during the first half of the sixteenth century remained very close, and reached a climax in her temporary inclusion in the Habsburg Empire on the marriage of Mary Tudor with Philip II of Spain (1554–8). One result of this marriage was the loss of Calais to France in 1558, after 211 years of English occupation. The complete severance from the Continent was followed by the greater maritime enterprise of the later sixteenth century in which the British empire has its origins.

Stretching across central Europe and including all the German **5, 12**
States, the Netherlands except Flanders and Artois, the Swiss Confederation, and the North Italian States except Venice, was the Holy Roman Empire. Flanders and Artois, fiefs of France in the fifteenth century, were added in 1526. The Empire was a very loose confederation, and for practical purposes included only the German States and the Netherlands. Outside of these the Imperial authority was scarcely more than nominal. The independence of the Swiss Confederation was virtually recognised in 1499. Only the German part of the Empire had any real unity, and that unity was provided more by common language and tradition than by political institutions or common policy. But, though the Empire as a whole was a weak political force, it was full of life in its various members. The multitude of States of which it was composed ranged in power and importance from great principalities like that of the Dukes of Austria to the territory of a small free town or the manor of an Imperial knight.

The foremost of the princely families of Germany was the House of Habsburg. With it the Imperial crown rested, without interruption, from 1438 to 1740, and again from 1745 until the dissolution of the Empire in 1806. At the beginning of the fifteenth century the Habsburg lands consisted of the archduchy of Austria, divided into Upper and Lower Austria, the duchies of Styria, Carinthia and Carniola, some possessions in Istria and Friuli, Trieste, the county of Tyrol, the lordship of Vorarlberg, and a group of possessions known as Vorderoesterreich, which included the Austrian Breisgau, the margravate of

Burgau, the landgravate of Nellenburg, the county of Hohenberg, the five Danube towns, and the landgravate of Lower and Upper Elsass. The duchies and the county of Tyrol formed a compact territory, well suited to become a base of expansion north and south. They were, and have remained, the nucleus of Habsburg power. Frederick III began the greatness of his House by acquiring the Imperial crown and by reuniting nearly all the hereditary possessions which had been distributed among various members of the family. He lost ground in Switzerland, where, after the surrender of the Thurgau to Zurich in 1460, the Habsburgs retained nothing save the Forest Towns of Waldshut, Säckingen, Laufenburg, and Rheinfelden. And, for a time, he was an exile from his capital; for Matthias Corvinus, King of Hungary, conquered Vienna and a part of Austria in 1485, and held it till his death in 1490. But, in 1477, Frederick married his son Maximilian to Mary of Burgundy, daughter and heiress of Charles the Bold, and thus obtained so much of the Burgundian inheritance as Louis XI did not seize. Maximilian, who had thus become lord of the Netherlands, Luxemburg, and Franche Comté, acquired Tyrol in 1492; and, when, in the following year, he inherited his father's dominions, all the Habsburg lands were gathered together in his hands. Of these he had a real hold; of the Burgundian inheritance he was but the guardian for his son Philip. Thus, during the fifteenth century, the House of Austria, which had been only a leading princely family, had, by its possession of the Empire and the fortunate amassing of territories, raised itself to a position of equality with the great States of Europe. Other marriages were not only to increase its power to an inordinate extent but also to change its character.

6 The territories acquired by Austria in 1477 as her share of the Burgundian inheritance were a part of the extensive, if heterogeneous, dominions which the Dukes of Burgundy had been amassing for more than a century. In 1363 King John of France granted the duchy of Burgundy as an appanage to his son Philip the Bold. By an astute and enterprising policy the Burgundian family proceeded to build up on the eastern frontier of France a great dominion which Charles the Bold all but raised to the position of a Middle Kingdom between France and Germany. Most of the provinces were acquired by the fortune of marriage or inheritance, some by purchase or force of arms; and a settled policy continuously directed the process of acquisition. In 1384, as a result of his marriage with Margaret of Flanders, the richest heiress in Europe, Duke Philip the Good added the county of Flanders with its great centres of Bruges, Ghent, and Ypres, the county of Artois, and the counties of Burgundy (Franche Comté), Rethel, and Nevers besides several seigneuries. To the duchy of Burgundy he added, in 1390, the barony of Charolais. Philip the Good purchased the county of Namur in 1430, and in the same year inherited from a cousin the duchies of

Brabant and Limburg and the marquisate of Antwerp. In 1433 he added the county of Hainault, which completed his possessions of the southern Netherlands, and the counties of Holland and Zeeland, with a nominal suzerainty over Friesland, which began the expansion of the Burgundian lands into the northern provinces. Holland included Amsterdam, the first seaport in Europe. In 1435, at the Treaty of Arras the King of France pledged to the Duke of Burgundy the towns of Picardy —a series of towns along the Somme from St Quentin to St Valéry at the mouth of the river—which much strengthened the southern frontier of the Burgundian possessions, and also left him in possession of certain territories previously granted by the King of England, including the county of Boulogne, Bar-sur-Seine, and the counties of Mâcon and Auxerre. The Somme towns were redeemed by Louis XI in 1463, but recovered by Charles the Bold in 1465. Their possession was vital to the security of either Power. The last of Duke Philip's acquisitions, made in 1441, was the duchy of Luxemburg, a sparsely peopled land with a fortress capital. Charles the Bold continued his father's work, and pursued with even greater eagerness and success his project of uniting the Burgundian and Netherland parts of his inheritance. He conquered the duchy of Gelderland and the county of Zutphen in 1473, and asserted his authority in the ecclesiastical territories which broke the unity of his dominions. Since 1456, the great see of Utrecht, which included the provinces of Overyssel and Drenthe (the Upper see) 22
and Groningen and Utrecht (the Lower see), had passed entirely under the ducal influence, and Charles, in addition, made the Burgundian Dukes the hereditary protectors of the bishopric of Liége. From 1469 to 1474 he held the landgravate of Upper Elsass (Sundgau) and the Breisgau, and in 1475 he took possession of the duchy of Lorraine. Death frustrated his ambition of a kingdom of Burgundy or Lorraine on the eve of its realisation.

The desire of the Dukes of Burgundy to link up and consolidate this group of provinces, and to form them into a separate State, arose very naturally out of their position. As vassals of two masters, they were under no effective control. Their possessions were middle regions, which might have formed then, as parts of them have formed since, a State, or States, distinct from France or Germany. They lay on the borderlands of both these realms, where the authority of their overlords would naturally be weakest. And, while they offered in some respects a strange aggregation of various nationalities and diverse institutions, they possessed a sufficient geographical unity to make their political union feasible. The death of Charles the Bold dissolved the idea of a strong middle kingdom, and his dominions have never since owned a common sovereign. Louis XI laid hold of the duchy of Burgundy, the Somme towns, Bar-sur-Seine, Auxerre, Mâcon, Franche Comté, Artois and Charolais—of all those provinces which were nearest and most

important to the strength of the French monarchy. The remainder passed to Austria when Maximilian married Mary of Burgundy. France was not able to retain all she had acquired. Though Louis, at the Treaty of Arras, 1482, maintained his claims on Franche Comté, Artois, and Charolais, Charles VIII, in the Treaty of Senlis, 1493, renounced these provinces. Thus, the bulk of the Burgundian inheritance passed into the German world, though its history had hitherto been more closely bound up with that of France. The ecclesiastical territories of Liége and Utrecht recovered their independence, as also did Gelderland, while Lorraine went back to its Duke.

12 This description of the Austrian and Burgundian lands may serve to illustrate the character of the political geography of Germany and the manner in which new States could be formed within its borders. The medieval duchies had broken up into a multiplicity of principalities and lordships, which were continually being subdivided, reunited, and regrouped. After the Emperor, the most important Princes were the Electors. By the Golden Bull of 1356 their number had been fixed at seven and their territories declared to be inalienable and indivisible. Three of them were ecclesiastics—the Archbishops of Mainz, Cologne, and Trier—and four laymen—the King of Bohemia, the Count Palatine of the Rhine, the Duke of Saxony, and the Margrave of Brandenburg. The territories of the ecclesiastical Electors lay on the western frontier of Germany. Trier was a compact State, almost entirely in the valley of the Moselle; Cologne lay along the Rhine from Wesel to Rheinberg, but included also the duchy of Westphalia; Mainz lay principally on the Main, but had in addition the dependencies of Eichsfeld, east of the Werra, and Erfurt in Thuringia.

The kingdom of Bohemia was a Slavonic Power, brought under German dominion in the tenth century, and always a member of the Empire, though it never lost its separate nationality. The margravate of Moravia had become its dependency in the tenth century, the margravate of Lusatia and the duchy of Silesia in the fourteenth. During the later Middle Ages the two kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary and the duchy of Austria were on several occasions united either by conquest on the part of one or the other, or by marriage unions; but, in the last half of the fifteenth century, Bohemia had become once more
1 separate under the rule of George Podiebrad (1458–71). For a brief period (1477–90), it lost the greater part of its three dependencies to the conquering arms of Matthias Corvinus. In 1490, on the death of Matthias Corvinus, the crown of Hungary was offered to Podiebrad's successor, Ladislas the Pole, and Bohemia and Hungary became again united. But Ladislas was forced, in 1492, to restore to Austria the conquests of his predecessor on the Hungarian throne in Austria, Styria, and Carinthia; and it was further arranged that, on the extinction of the male line, his territories should pass to the Habsburgs. Brandenburg

scarcely as yet showed promise of a great future. The possessions of 55
the family consisted of the Mark of Brandenburg on the Elbe and Oder, and of the principalities of Ansbach and Baireuth in southern Germany. In 1415 Frederick, Burgrave of Nürnberg, and lord of Ansbach and Baireuth, had been invested with the Electoral Mark, which included Altmark, Priegnitz, Mittelmark, and Uckermark. In addition, the lordships of Cottbus and Peitz in Lower Lusatia were in 1445 acquired from Bohemia. In 1454 the Neumark, pledged to the German Order in 1402, returned to the Hohenzollerns, and the claims of the German Order were finally renounced in 1517. In 1473 the Elector Albert Achilles by his will forbade the partition of the Hohenzollern dominions into more than three parts—Brandenburg, Baireuth, and Ansbach—and declared the Electoral Mark indivisible—a provision which was the indispensable condition of future greatness. The partition of 1473 gave the Mark of Brandenburg, to which the Electorate was attached, to the elder line, and Ansbach and Baireuth to the two
younger. Ansbach and Baireuth, united to each other in 1557, were 59
not reunited to the rest of the Hohenzollern dominions until 1791, and have consequently not much influenced the history of Brandenburg. Meanwhile the Mark had begun to grow. Between 1470 and 1486 certain parts of Silesia were acquired, and in 1472 the investiture with Pomerania-Stettin. By treaties of 1493, 1529 and 1571 the right of suzerainty over Pomerania-Stettin was renounced for that of the succession. In 1472, the conquests made by Brandenburg in the Uckermark were confirmed to her, and the frontier between Pomerania and Brandenburg was thus fixed. There followed a series of small additions to the Electoral Mark, the duchy of Krossen in 1482, the lordship of Zossen in 1490, and the county of Ruppin in 1524.

The Rhenish Palatinate was one of the much divided possessions of the House of Wittelsbach. Together with the Upper Palatinate, and the principalities of Neuburg and Sulzbach, it was held by one branch of the family, while the duchy of Bavaria was held by another. In 1410 the Palatinate inheritance was divided, and, at the end of the fifteenth century, three branches of the family were still ruling in it. In 1559 the Electoral line died out, and the Simmern line inherited the Palatinate.

The Electorate of Saxony was a part of the new Saxony which had grown up in the later Middle Ages on the middle course of the Elbe with its capital at Wittenberg. On the extinction of the Wittenberg line in 1422, Frederick V, of the House of Wettin, received the Electoral dignity. In 1485, the Saxon territories were divided between his two grandchildren, Albert and Ernest, who founded two historical lines, the Albertine and the Ernestine. Ernest received the duchy of Saxony together with the Electoral dignity, southern Thuringia, the north of Meissen, the Vogtland, the Franconian territories, and Coburg; Albert,

the south of Meissen and northern Thuringia; the ecclesiastical territories of Naumburg-Zeitz, Meissen, and Merseburg, the Osterland, and the Pleissnerland were divided.

Of the Princes of the Empire who had seats in the Princely Chamber of the Diet there were about eighty, rather more laymen than ecclesiastics. Amongst the most important was the Duke of Bavaria. In the later fifteenth century, the Bavarian territories were divided between two lines, ruling at Munich and at Landshut. In 1503 the latter died out, and the Munich line united the Bavarian territories, though giving (1507) Sulzbach and Neuburg to the son of the Elector Palatine as a satisfaction of his claims on the Landshut inheritance. The Brunswick family possessed a compact mass of territory lying between the middle course of the Elbe and the Weser. But it had suffered much division. The main line had divided in 1373 into the two lines of Lüneburg and Wolfenbüttel. Wolfenbüttel carried with it the ducal title and the city of Brunswick; Lüneburg was destined to become the electorate, and afterwards the kingdom, of Hanover. In 1495 Wolfenbüttel divided into Wolfenbüttel and Calenberg, in 1569 Lüneburg into New Lüneburg and Dannenberg. In addition there was the Grubenhagen line. In 1584 Wolfenbüttel and Calenberg were reunited, and in 1596 Wolfenbüttel absorbed Grubenhagen. Hesse was divided into two lines in 1458—Hesse-Cassel and Hesse-Marburg—the latter of which inherited Katzenellenbogen in 1479. The family territories were reunited in 1500, to be redivided in 1567 amongst four lines, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Marburg, Hesse-Rheinfels, and Hesse-Darmstadt, of which last Hesse-Homburg was a branch-line. Other important princely territories were Baden, Anhalt, Würtemberg and Nassau. Baden lay east of the Upper Rhine, and in 1535 was divided into Baden-Baden and Baden-Pforzheim, or, as it was afterwards called, Baden-Durlach. Anhalt had already divided into several lines of which the Bernburg line died out in 1468, though others remained at Zerbst, Köthen, and Dessau, until all the Anhalt territories were reunited in 1570, only to be redivided in 1603–6 into the same four lines. The county of Würtemberg was declared indivisible in 1482, and in 1495 Count Eberhard was made a Duke. In 1519 Duke Ulrich was expelled, and the duchy was pledged to Austria, and, though the Duke was reinstated in 1534, his territory remained under Austrian suzerainty until 1599. Nassau possessed scattered territories in Westphalia and the Upper Rhenish Circle, divided amongst several branches of the family, to which the House of Nassau-Orange was added in 1530. Two groups of territories on the Lower Rhine—the one, the duchy of Cleve and the county of Mark, united in 1392, the other, the duchies of Jülich and Berg and the county of Ravensberg, united in 1434—were by marriage brought together in 1521. Other princes of importance were the Count of Oldenburg, who acquired Delmenhorst in 1526 and Jever in 1575, the Duke of Lorraine who in 1473 had

acquired the duchy of Bar in France, and the Dukes of Mecklenburg and Pomerania. Pomerania had in 1295 been divided between two lines ruling at Wolgast and at Stettin, but was reunited in the Stettin line in 1464, to be divided again between Stettin and Wolgast in 1531. The position of Holstein requires some special elucidation. The county of Holstein, made a duchy by Imperial grant in 1474, was a member of the Empire. In 1460 it entered into an indissoluble union with the duchy of Schleswig, a fief of the kingdom of Denmark. In the same year the King of Denmark, who was a member of the House of Oldenburg, elected King of Denmark in 1448, was elected Duke of Schleswig and Count of Holstein, so that Holstein stood in a special and different relation to three other States—the Empire, the kingdom of Denmark, and the duchy of Schleswig. On the west of Holstein was the free republic of Ditmarschen.

A large part of the Empire was under the rule of ecclesiastical Princes, and particularly was this the case with the Rhenish lands. In addition to the electoral territories already mentioned, there were the archbishopric of Salzburg in the south-east of the Empire, almost enclosed in Habsburg territory; the Franconian bishoprics of Würzburg and Bamberg, that rivalled the Rhenish archbishoprics; the Netherland bishoprics of Utrecht and Liége, the former large, the latter rich; the huge bishoprics of Münster, Osnabrück, and Paderborn, and the smaller see of Minden, which included between them most of the north-western corner of the Empire; the bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, lying between the mouths of the Weser and the Elbe; the archbishopric of Magdeburg and the bishoprics of Hildesheim and Halberstadt south of Brandenburg and Brunswick; Schwerin and Ratzeburg in Mecklenburg; Lübeck in Holstein; Cammin in Pomerania; Naumburg-Zeitz, Meissen, and Merseburg in Saxony; Metz, Toul, and Verdun in Lorraine; Speier, Strassburg, Basel, and Constance, on the Upper Rhine; Augsburg, Eichstadt, Ratisbon, and Passau on the frontiers of Bavaria; Freising, Brixen, and Trent in the Habsburg territories. The bishoprics of Brandenburg, Havelberg, and Lebus were too much under the control of the Electors of Brandenburg to be counted as separate States. Amongst the great abbeys those of Fulda, the largest and most famous of German houses, and Hersfeld, both south of Hesse, and Ellwangen in Suabia call for special mention.

After the princely States came the Free Imperial towns. Of these, there were in the later fifteenth century about eighty. They ranged in importance from great commercial towns possessing considerable territories, such as Hamburg, Bremen, and Nürnberg, to the little towns of Suabia. The great majority were situated in southern or western Germany. Amongst them were Aachen, Dortmund, Cologne, Metz, Toul, Verdun, Weissenburg (Alsace), Hagenau, Strassburg, Offenburg, Schlettstadt, Colmar, Freiburg, Mülhausen (Alsace), Besançon, Worms,

Landau, Speier, Wimpfen, Heilbronn, Hall, Aalen, Esslingen, Gmünd, Nördlingen, Weissenburg (Nordgau), Nürnberg, Rottenburg, Windsheim, Augsburg, Donauwörth, Memmingen, Biberach, Leutkirch, Kaufbeuren, Kempten, Isny, Wangen, Lindau, Ravensburg, Constance, Überlingen, Pfullendorf, Rottweil, Ulm, Reutlingen, Weil, Frankfort, Schweinfurt, Friedberg, Wetzlar, Mühlhausen (Thuringia), Nordhausen, Goslar, Lübeck, Hamburg, Bremen, Ratisbon. Weakest of all the independent rulers were the Imperial Knights. They had preserved their independence, for the most part, only in south-western Germany. Often they possessed little more than a village or two. They were organised in cantons, which were grouped in the three Circles of the Rhine, Franconia, and Suabia.

Thus, Germany at the end of the fifteenth century formed a strange world of States. The medieval duchies had broken up into principalities, lordships, and communes too numerous to mention. In this chaos there was a liability to political change and room for growth. Yet, of the States that were to arise within the Empire—some to make themselves free of its authority, others to remain nominally dependent—of Holland, Switzerland, and Brandenburg, only Switzerland gave signs of the future towards which she was advancing. Austria, girdling Germany on the west, the south, and part of the east, stood out most conspicuously. It was still an open question whether she might not be powerful enough to unite the Empire more closely, and form of it a strong State, capable of playing a part in the politics of Europe by
5 the side of the new monarchies of France and Spain. Maximilian I made an attempt to improve the machinery of government, and for this purpose divided the Empire into a number of Circles. Not every part was included. Bohemia and her dependencies, Switzerland, and the Italian States, with the exception of Savoy, remained outside the new organisation. Six of the Circles were formed in 1500, viz. (1) Bavaria, embracing Bavaria and Salzburg, (2) Suabia—Würtemberg, Baden, the bishopric of Augsburg and many Imperial cities, (3) Franconia—Würzburg, Bamberg, Ansbach, and Baireuth, (4) the Upper Rhine—Zweibrücken, Lorraine, and part of Elsass, (5) Westphalia—Jülich, Cleve, Berg, Mark, also Liége and other bishoprics, (6) Lower Saxony—Brunswick, Mecklenburg, Holstein, Bremen, Magdeburg, and some cities. In 1512, four more Circles were created to include the electoral and Habsburg territories, viz. (1) the Lower Rhine, embracing the four Rhenish electorates; (2) Upper Saxony—the Electorate of Saxony and Brandenburg, and Pomerania; (3) Burgundy—the Austrian dominions of the Netherlands, Luxemburg and Franche Comté; (4) the Austrian—the remainder of the Austrian territory, with the bishoprics of Trent and Brixen. An eleventh was added for the immediate Imperial territory. In each Circle the governing authority was responsible for the police, and for administrative and military affairs. The organisation was got into working order in 1521, but was never very successful. The attempt

to strengthen and unite the Empire by the improvement of Imperial machinery was doomed to failure. Germany did not follow the general tendency towards political consolidation which would have given her a definite and powerful policy and place in Europe. The rivalries of her component parts—of Emperor and Princes, of Princes and Towns and Knights, caused fatal disunion. Whether she would have overcome this political tendency is doubtful; but, while the matter was in debate, the Reformation spread through the country, and, allying with the separatist aspirations of the Princes, divided Germany irremediably and permanently against herself.

Already in the fifteenth century, one part of the Empire was breaking 15
away from the main body. The independence of the Swiss Confederation received a partial recognition in 1477 and in 1499, though it was never openly acknowledged. The Confederation had its origin in the league of three mountain communities for resisting the oppression of their Habsburg rulers. Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden formed the original political centre of the State, as they formed always its geographical centre. Neighbouring towns and territories joined them—Luzern in 1332, Zurich in 1351, Glarus and Zug in 1352, Bern, with its own allies and subjects, in 1353—making up the eight ancient cantons. Five more were afterwards added—Freiburg and Solothurn in 1481, Basel and Schaffhausen in 1501, Appenzell in 1513—and at the number of thirteen the cantons remained until the changes made in the Revolutionary period. The Confederation, however, comprised not only cantons but also allies and subjects—who might be allies or subjects of one or more members of the Confederation or of the whole Confederation—with a consequent strange complexity of political relations. The allied districts were the Valais from 1416, the abbey of St Gallen with the county of Toggenburg from 1451, the town of St Gallen from 1454, the Grisons, which was itself a federation of three Leagues—the Upper League, the League of God's House, and the League of the Ten Jurisdictions—formed in 1471 on the eastern borders of Switzerland and attached to some of the Swiss cantons from 1497–8, the Imperial towns of Mülhausen from 1518 to 1587, Rottweil from 1519 to 1632, the city of Geneva from 1526, the territory of Biel or Bienne from 1529, and the principality of Neufchâtel from 1529 till its acquisition by Prussia in 1707. The more important of the subject lands were in the north. Aargau and Thurgau, and other districts, were conquered from the House of Austria by Bern and Zurich in 1415 and 1460 respectively, an acquisition which gave the Confederation for a time the Lake of Constance and the Rhine as its northern frontier. In 1441 Uri acquired the Val Levantina, and the Confederation made its first gains in Italian territory. More important were the conquests of detached Savoyard territories north of Lake Geneva: such as Grandson, Morat, Orbe, and Aigle, which Bern

and Freiburg, not at the time a member of the league, made in 1475–6 during the war with Charles the Bold, and the gains, also from Savoy, made by the Valais, which, like the conquests of Freiburg, were afterwards added to the Confederation. In Italy, Bellinzona was acquired in 1500; and, in 1512, a considerable cession of Milanese territory, including the Val Maggia, Locarno and Lugano, was made to the Confederation as a reward for their services to Sforza; while the Grisons, in 1513, acquired the Valtelline, with Chiavenna and Bormio. Soon after, Bern, Freiburg, and the Valais expelled Savoy from all its territories north of the Lake of Geneva and from some of those to the south, and added Vaud, Chablais, and the bishopric of Lausanne, to Confederate territory. Not all of these last gains however were retained. In 1567, Chablais and Gex were restored to Savoy. The last acquisition before the Revolution was made in 1554, when Bern and Freiburg divided between them the county of Gruyères (Greyerz).

By this series of alliances and conquests a strange State was built up. Arising in an area where three countries met—France, Germany, and Italy—the Swiss Confederation bore a threefold character, and the contrast between the German east and the French west represents a division that is one of the most essential facts of Swiss history. Moreover the frontiers of Switzerland were most anomalous and illustrated the piecemeal way in which the State was formed. At Schaffhausen it stretched beyond the Rhine, at Lugano it descended the Alps into the Italian plains. A union, as it was, of small communities for self-defence, no principle of nationality or geography governed its configuration; and the limits of its expansion were fixed by the weakness of its own constitutional system and its consequent inability to grow great, rather than by the power of its neighbours or the barriers of nature.

4 In Italy, as in the other western countries, a tendency to political consolidation had shown itself in the later Middle Ages. But there had been no such tendency to the union of Italy as a whole, as to the union of France, or of the Iberian peninsula. Italy was only "a geographical expression"; but, within it, had grown up a group of States which formed a political system of their own. This was to some extent a result of geographical conditions. Parted from the rest of Europe by a formidable mountain barrier, it was able to have a separate political life; and since it was internally much divided, political divisions tended to follow to some extent geographical. In the continental north is the great plain of Lombardy, the seat of Milan, of the land power of Venice, and of the Italian dominions of Savoy. In the peninsula are three plains of importance, all on the western side, for the Apennines tend to follow the eastern coast—the plain of the Arno, where Florence grew up, the plain of the Tiber, where was Rome, the head of the Papal States, and the plain of Capua, the centre of the kingdom of Naples. Thus all the great States of Italy were formed

in the great plains. Historical conditions also had been unfavourable to the idea of Italian unity. The Imperial traditions and connexions of Italy, as well as the spiritual power of the Papacy, had been destructive of the sense of national separateness and the temporal power of the Papacy had also been a powerful obstacle to unity. Moreover, the course of history had sundered the different parts of Italy from each other, created opposed interests, and led to wars of conquest and aggrandisement. Thus a group of separate Powers had been formed, whose boundaries corresponded neither to geographical features, nor historical territories, nor ecclesiastical divisions, but might be regarded at any particular moment as a result of the balance of rival military strength.

At the end of the fifteenth century there were some half-dozen leading Powers—Savoy, Milan, Venice, Florence, the Papal States and Naples—which overshadowed all the others. In the middle of the Po valley the Visconti family had built up the State of Milan, annexing all the neighbouring small municipalities and principalities, and changing the city republic into a duchy. In 1490, their territories stretched across the Po from Pontremoli in the south to Bormio and the sources of the Adda in the north. They included Novara and Alessandria in the west, Parma and Piacenza in the east. The Milanese had no natural frontiers. Its expansion was checked by contact with other expanding States. Hence its conquests, though easy to make, proved difficult to hold. In Tuscany, Florence was carrying out a consolidating work like that of Milan in Lombardy. Her territory grew continually during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, though little increase was made under the rule of the Medici 1433–94, as compared with the growth of Milan under the rule of the Visconti. Most of the northern cities of Tuscany, including Pisa, Volterra, Arezzo, and Pistoia, but not Lucca, had passed under her sway; in the south Piombino and Siena amongst other places had as yet escaped absorption. Though in fact a monarchy, Florence had not, like Milan, been transformed from a city State into a duchy.

The Papal States stretched across the centre of the peninsula and northwards, on its western side, to the valley of the Po. They were an artificial aggregation of territories, without any sort of geographical unity, such as Milan and Florence possessed. They included Emilia,
Romagna, the Marches of Ancona, Umbria, Sabina, Campagna, and 26
the Patrimony of St Peter—a group of districts which no natural boundary enclosed. Politically, they exhibited the greatest diversity. Some districts were governed by powerful communes, others by great monasteries; parts were held by powerful feudal lords, and papal vicars ruled in other places. In Emilia and the Romagna, the part of the valley of the Po which lay within the Papal States, the Pope had no authority. Flourishing communes, such as Bologna and Imola, divided the country

among themselves. Here and in the Marches the tyrants or papal
vicars were especially powerful. A branch of the family of Malatesta
26 at one time held many of these towns. Urbino, the chief town of
the Montefeltro family, became a separate duchy in 1478, a fief of
the Papal States, but distinct. In 1513 it fell to the Rovere family,
and was not annexed to the Papal States until 1631. Similarly,
Ferrara was held as a papal fief by the House of Este. In Umbria,
the greater part of the land was subject to large communes, of which
the most important was Perugia, which possessed a sort of suzerainty
over the other Umbrian towns. Other important towns were Spoleto,
and Orvieto. In the Campagna and the Patrimony of St Peter the
great feudal lords predominated. The most famous of these were the
Colonna, Orsini, Savelli, and Gaetani. Only in Rome did the Pope
really rule, and Sixtus IV was the first Pope of whom this can be
26 truly asserted. Two enclaves of ecclesiastical territory, Ponte Corvo
and Benevento, lay within the kingdom of Naples. Thus the Papal
States were a collection of States of varying degrees of independence,
and the papal rule, though not a recent growth like that of the
Visconti and Medici, could not compare with theirs for strength and
solidity. Nominally the sovereign of a considerable territory, the Pope
saw his possessions really in the hands of independent communes and
a lawless baronage.

The kingdom of Naples at the southern extremity of the peninsula was the largest of the Italian States. Cut off from the active politics of the north, and not rich enough to be great, it played only a secondary part in the affairs of Italy. Almost surrounded by the sea, and not a maritime Power, it had been easy of access to the foreign invader. Together with Sicily, it had been conquered by the Normans in the eleventh century and made a dependency of the Holy See. Two centuries later, it was conquered by the Angevins, who, however, lost Sicily, in 1282, to the House of Aragon. In 1435 Naples itself passed to Aragon, and it was handed over to a branch of that House in 1458. In spite of the frequent change of rulers, Naples had preserved its frontiers unchanged, while the other great States of Italy had been rising and falling. Thus, at the end of the fifteenth century, it was closely connected with, though not, like Sicily since 1282, and Sardinia since 1420, a part of, the kingdom of Aragon.

3 Venice and Genoa, both city States, and both Imperial cities, suggest
a contrast and a parallel. Both held possessions in the eastern Mediterranean. The dominion of Genoa was in the Black Sea and the Aegean, that of Venice in the Adriatic, the Levant, and the Aegean. In the Black Sea Genoa held Amastris and Caffa, besides Galata by Constantinople, and the large Aegean islands Chios and Lesbos. But, like Venice, she had fallen back before the Ottoman advance. She lost Lesbos in the Aegean in 1462, though she retained Chios until 1566. On the

mainland, enclosed by mountains, she never had quite the same opportunity of or necessity for acquiring dominion as Venice. But she had naturally laid hold of the island of Corsica, which, in the hands of a hostile Power, would have been dangerous to the security of her trade. The land dominion of Venice had been acquired during the fifteenth century for the protection of the city and of the overland trade routes to northern Europe, of which one passed through the Ampezzo valley to Innsbruck and Munich, and another up the Po to Bergamo, the Splügen, and Constance. It was essential to Venice to check the expansion of Milan over Lombardy and to command the rivers and land northwards to the Alps. Between 1408 and 1454, by wars with Milan, she conquered Brescia and Bergamo as well as Padua, Verona, and Vicenza, and brought her frontiers to the river Adda. In 1420, she conquered Friuli and extended her territory northwest to the Carnic Alps; in 1441, Ravenna, the ancient capital of the Eastern Empire in Italy; and, in 1480, in a war with Ferrara, she acquired Rovigo on the Adige and the Polesine and brought her frontiers to the Po. Thus she held a great part of Lombardy, from Bergamo and Crema in the west to Friuli and Aquileia in the east, though the bishopric of Trent, Lake Garda, and the marquisate of Mantua almost divided her territory into two parts. But the chief interests of Venice were outside of Italy. Her mainland territories were not the original nucleus of her empire, but a late appendage. Venice was a great 3
maritime State, whose field of dominion lay in the Adriatic and eastern Mediterranean. Her over-sea possessions were of a character natural to a commercial and maritime Power—islands, strips of coast, and strategic points of the mainland. Extending down the Adriatic, round the Morea, through the Aegean and the Levant, they gave her control of these seas and of the trade routes between western Europe and Egypt, Syria, and Constantinople. Trieste was a Habsburg possession, and thus Venetian territory did not extend uninterruptedly round the head of the Adriatic; but Istria, with Pola, was Venetian, as also were most of the islands off the coast immediately to the south, but not any of the mainland, for in these parts, Hungary came down to the sea. A little to the south, near Zara, began Venetian Dalmatia. On the Dalmatian coast, Venice and Hungary struggled for mastery during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and Venice acquired a nearly continuous control of the coast from Trieste to Albania. The independent republic of Ragusa, at one time a rival, broke the continuity of her dominions on the Dalmatian coast; but Cattaro with its deep harbour was Venetian. On the Albanian coast, she held Antivari and Durazzo, among other places. Of the Ionian islands, she acquired Corfu in 1386 and others in 1449. In the Aegean, after the Fourth Crusade, she had made great gains, which included Lemnos, Negropont, occupied in 1390, and other islands. In the Levant, she acquired Candia in 1208; and Cyprus, which came under

her immediate influence in 1473, she finally annexed in 1488. In addition to the islands and ports which she possessed, she had treaty rights in many eastern towns—in Salonika, Constantinople, Tana, Caffa, Trebizond, Alexandria, Cairo, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Damascus, and Jerusalem.

The growth of Venice belongs to medieval history. At the end of the fifteenth century she had reached the zenith of her power. Already she was beginning to lose ground to the Turks, who were advancing in the Aegean and the Balkan peninsula. Negropont was lost to them in 1470, and, when Venice made peace in 1479, she sacrificed in addition Skutari, Brazzo, and various places which the Turks had occupied in the Morea. On the mainland, too, her position was precarious. Her continual expansion, induced by her want of natural frontiers, made her seem an ambitious Power, and had drawn on her the suspicion of the other Italian States.

25 Savoy hardly belonged to the Italian political system. In the fifteenth century she was a middle State, as much Burgundian as Italian. But her direction of growth was towards Italy; and, in the long run, it was Savoy, not Venice, Milan, Florence, or Naples which brought about the unity of Italy. Savoy lay astride of the Alps, as Navarre of the Pyrenees, and was strong enough to gain importance from the geographical advantage of a strategic position commanding most of the Alpine passes between France and Italy. Her territories fell into two parts. North of the Alps were the duchy of Savoy, the controlling centre of the whole, Bresse, Bugey, Valromey, and Gex, lying between the Rhone and the Saône, and, bordering the Lake of Geneva for the most part to the north, Vaud and the Lower Valais. In Italy, her principal possessions were in Piedmont, where she had gained a footing in the eleventh century and had steadily increased her power at the expense of Milan, Saluzzo, Provence, and Montferrat, reaching the Mediterranean at Nice, and reducing Saluzzo, Montferrat, and Tenda to the position of dependencies. The Savoyard territories had thus no natural unity, and were very decisively divided by the Alps. Savoy had several possible directions of expansion; but the consolidation of France on her western frontier, and the growth of the Swiss Confederation, which took from her Grandson, Morat, Orbe, Echallens, Aigle, and the Lower Valais in 1475–6, were already forcing her to find her future field of growth on the Italian side of the Alps where the political conditions offered a more favourable opportunity.

Of the minor States, the Este, who held Modena and Reggio of the Emperor, and Ferrara of the Pope, had a considerable territory in the valley of the Po; the Gonzagas, who held Mantua, had an important strategic position; Lucca, though suffering at the hands of the Este and Medici, remained a distinct commonwealth; Siena still held a large part of Tuscany; Piombino was under the protection of Florence.

Thus Italy formed a political world in herself, with her own great and small States—the great States intent on maintaining a balance of power. No prospect of voluntary union appeared. The equal strength of Milan, Venice, Florence, and Naples prevented any gathering of the States round a common centre, which alone could form in Italy a political power equal to that of the new States rising around her.

In the south-eastern corner of Europe, the political position had been 3
steadily changing during the course of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. A new Power, the Ottoman Turks, Mongolian in race and Mohammadan in religion, had entered Europe as the natural enemy of its Christian States. Advancing irresistibly westward, they swept away the kingdoms which had been formed in the later Middle Ages on the ruins of the East Roman Empire. Their dominions centred round the Aegean and the Black Sea, whence they were expelling the Venetians and the Genoese. They subjected, but did not absorb, the Christian nations of the Balkan peninsula—Greeks, Servians, and Bulgarians. Though an Asiatic Power in origin, they were at the end of the fifteenth century firmly planted in Europe, and no limit could as yet be seen to their expansion. The order of their conquests had been as follows. Entering Europe in 1354, they captured Adrianople, which they made their capital, in 1360. The Latin principalities speedily succumbed. In 1389, Servia was defeated and surrendered Macedonia, though she remained independent herself; Wallachia became dependent in 1391, Thessaly was annexed in 1393, Bulgaria conquered by 1398, while the duchy of Athens, the principality of Achaia, and the despotate of Mistra became vassal States. Thus, before the end of the fourteenth century, the Turks had annexed or reduced to dependence all the *hinterland* of the Balkan peninsula to the frontiers of Hungary, had hemmed in Constantinople, and even reached, on the south, the Gulf of Corinth. In the early fifteenth century they suffered some loss in Asia; but they made advances in Greek and Albanian lands which brought them to the Adriatic. The principalities of Achaia, northern Epirus, and Salonika were conquered by 1430, Acarnania, Aetolia, and Arta in 1449; Constantinople was captured in 1453; Moldavia became tributary in 1456; Servia, except Belgrade, was annexed in 1459, the duchy of Athens in 1460, most of Bosnia in 1463, and Herzegovina in 1483. Montenegro, which took shape as a separate State on the break-up of the Servian empire, succeeded in maintaining her independence. In Dalmatia, the Turks slowly acquired the Bosnian and Hungarian districts; but Venice clung to the great coast towns. These conquests on the mainland were accompanied and followed by conquests in the islands and the Black Sea, and of Venetian posts in Dalmatia, Albania, and the Morea. In the northern Aegean Lemnos, Imbros, Samothrace, and Thasos were acquired in 1456–7; Trebizond, on the Black Sea littoral, in 1461; Lesbos in 1462;

Negropont in 1470. These losses, together with those of Skutari and Kroja and the Maina district in the Morea, were recognised by Venice at the Peace of 1479. In the same year, the Turks seized Zante, Cephalonia, and Santa Maura, and in 1481 crossed the Adriatic, occupied Otranto, and seemed about to begin in Italy what they had completed in the Balkan peninsula. But, after 1481, their advance in Europe halted for a time, and, in 1485, Venice recovered Zante. In 1499–1500, however, the Turks continued their advance, and though, in 1502, Venice recovered Cephalonia and temporarily occupied Santa Maura, the latter was regained by them in the Peace of 1502, when they kept the places which they had conquered, and Lepanto on the Gulf of Corinth. Thus, at the end of the fifteenth century, no position of equilibrium had been reached in south-eastern Europe, and the line at which Venice on the south, and Hungary, now that she had lost Matthias Corvinus, in the north, could stay the advance of the Turks had still to be found.

21 It is to Hungary that we must now turn our attention. The kingdom of Hungary was founded in the ninth century by the Magyars, who occupied the valleys of the Danube and Theiss, and thereby divided the northern Slavs of Bohemia and Poland from the southern Slavs of Servia, Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia. By accepting Christianity from Rome they entered the more easily into the western political system. The strongest Power on the mainland in south-eastern Europe, they made extensive conquests, though their possession of them was not continuous. By the end of the fourteenth century, they had added part of Dalmatia, Poland, Wallachia, and Moldavia, and had flanked their territories with protected areas in what are now Bosnia, Servia, and Roumania. Even beyond these marches lay a number of vassal States. In the fifteenth century, Hungary lost ground to Venice in Dalmatia, and to the Ottoman Turks in the Balkan peninsula, and pledged the county of Zips to Poland in 1412. Matthias Corvinus (1458–90) raised his kingdom once more to a dominant position in eastern Europe; stemmed the tide of Ottoman invasion; conquered parts of Bosnia and Servia in 1479; made Moldavia and Wallachia Hungarian dependencies in 1463; took Silesia, Lusatia, and Moravia from Bohemia in 1477, and Lower Austria, including Vienna, from the Emperor in 1485. He also so far strengthened the system of county government that Hungary tended to become a group of some fifty independent communities. But the greatness which Corvinus won for Hungary was destined to be brief. The Bohemian and Austrian conquests could not be maintained, with the Turk pressing on the southern frontier. At the end of the fifteenth century, Hungary was in a precarious position.

1 North-eastern Europe almost formed a political system of its own, of which the Baltic, round whose shores all the North-Eastern Powers were grouped, and for whose control they contended, formed the centre. In the first half of the twelfth century, no Teutonic Power, German or

Scandinavian, had any lasting hold of any part of the eastern Baltic. But in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries Sweden conquered Finland, and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries two German religious Orders, which had united in 1237—the Knights of the Sword and the Teutonic Order—conquered Prussia, Livonia, Esthonia, Courland, Semigallia, the islands of Dago and Ösel, Pomerelia, Gothland for a time, and Samogitia, and built up a great dominion on the eastern and southern Baltic. In the fifteenth century, the power of the Orders was diminished. In 1410, by the First Peace of Thorn, Lithuania recovered Samogitia from the Sword Knights, and thus separated the Livonian and Prussian lands of the Orders. In 1466, by the Second Peace of Thorn, Poland gained from them West Prussia (Culm and Pomerelia with the cities of Danzig and Thorn) and Ermeland a part of East Prussia, while the remainder of East Prussia was retained by the Teutonic Order as a Polish fief. This expansion of Poland and Lithuania was a recovery of territory that had been lost in the preceding century. The kingdom of Poland, founded **20**
in the tenth century, had grown rapidly for a time, until weakened by division and cut off from the Baltic by the German Orders. The neighbouring State of Lithuania, a fellow sufferer at the hands of the Knights, had risen to importance in the thirteenth century. In the fourteenth century, Lithuania made gains at the expense of her Russian neighbours, while Poland lost Silesia to Bohemia in 1335, and Pomerelia to the German Order in 1343, though, like Lithuania, it grew in the south-east at the expense of Russia. Lithuania even extended as far south as the Black Sea, though her Black Sea territory was lost in 1474. In 1386 the two States were united by the marriage of the Duke of Lithuania with the Queen of Poland. In the fifteenth century they recovered their position on the Baltic, and Poland continued to expand at the cost of Russia. In 1471 Ladislas of Poland was elected to the Crown of Bohemia and in 1491 to that of Hungary, so that at the end of the fifteenth century Poland with Lithuania was the most formidable of the Baltic Powers. She had great possessions, vast size and continuity of territory; but she was weak from the want of defensible frontiers and natural boundaries. Thus, during the fifteenth century, the balance of power on the Baltic had been decisively changed; but new developments in Russia and Scandinavia threatened new changes. The union of Poland and Lithuania, which was only personal at first and often interrupted, became from 1501 continuous, and in 1569 the two States were incorporated by the Union of Lublin.

Beyond Poland and Lithuania, in the great plains that stretch from **1**, 52
northern Asia into the heart of Europe, there was in process of formation at this time a State destined later to take a foremost place in the European polity. The Muscovite empire was formed by a union of Slavonic principalities which had a certain cohesion in common race, language and religion, a common princely stock, a unity of historical

development, and the primacy of the Grand Princes at Kieff. The chief of these principalities were Novgorod the Great, Kieff, Smolensk and Moscow; while others of importance were Tver, Viatka, Pskoff, Jaroslavl and Chernigoff. In a land of plains like eastern Europe the rivers were of the greatest importance. On the great rivers of Russia were formed the original centres of her history, and they determined the character and direction of her growth. Novgorod the Great, on the Ilmen, near the Valdai plateau—a dominant point in the river system of Russia—commanded at once an inlet to the whole of Russia and an outlet to the sea through the network of streams which ends in the Neva. St Petersburg in the eighteenth century, like Novgorod in the ninth, took advantage of the commercial and political value of this position. Kieff was on the Dnieper, whose course drew it to the Black Sea and the Byzantine world. The fertility of the Black Land and the proximity to the Eastern Empire gave it supremacy over the other Russian principalities. Smolensk, also, was on the Dnieper, but further north and with a commanding central position, near to the source of the other great Russian rivers, the westward flowing Düna and the eastward flowing Volga. In the middle of the twelfth century, the Grand Princes moved their capital to the Moskowa, a tributary of the Oka, a sub-tributary of the Volga. A State centred at Moscow was far removed from the Western world. Moreover, it had no natural frontiers. It might advance in time over the southern steppes to the Black Sea; but its easiest direction of expansion would be down the Volga to the Caspian and endlessly northwards into northern Asia. Before the dawn of modern history, the loosely united Russian principalities suffered a threefold conquest. In the thirteenth century, the German Order conquered the north-western principalities, introduced German civilisation and planted a strong power between Russia and the Baltic. In the same century, the Mongols conquered the eastern group of principalities which formed Great Russia. In the early fourteenth century, the Lithuanians made considerable conquests in West and South Russia in the neighbourhood of Kieff. Thus Russia was divided into two parts—Great or Eastern Russia, with its centre in Moscow subject to the Tartars, and Little Russia, attached to Poland and Lithuania. In the process by which Russia has been built up we may observe the union of the principalities, the establishment of their independence, the recovery of conquered Russian land, and the ceaseless expansion of the Russian people. The shape and the extent of the Russian empire has been largely determined by geographical conditions. Russia is as closely connected with Asia as she is with Europe, for the gentle slopes of the Urals offer but the slightest barrier, and she is thus at once exposed to Asiatic invasion and invited to Asiatic expansion—both of which have played a large part in her history. In European Russia, all the mountain ranges lie on the frontiers. Between the Carpathians and the Urals, the Caucasus and the mountains of Finland, nature has left an

immense area round which these ranges form a girdle. It was natural that this huge area should form a single State, and equally natural that Russia should advance over the open plains and forests of central and northern Asia to the Hindu Kush and the Pacific. And, further, the conditions imposed on the country certain political tendencies. So vast an inland demanded outlets, both in Europe and Asia. Hence, north, south, east, and west, Russia has advanced towards the sea. While political necessity has compelled her to seek a sure frontier, economic necessity has compelled her to find not only new areas for her ever-growing population, but also outlets for her trade and for a civilising intercourse with other nations.

Russian unity was brought about by the Princes of Moscow, who gradually gathered the other States round Moscow. It was not a difficult task, as the principalities were but artificial divisions of one country and one race. Ivan III (1462–1505) annexed in the north-west Novgorod the Great, the lord of Northern Russia to the Urals, in 1478, and Tver in 1485; in the north-east Viatka in 1489; in the north Jaroslavl and Rostoff; in the south-west Chernigoff. In 1480, he threw off the Tartar yoke and thus gave Russia independence as well as unity. The Golden Horde broke up into a number of smaller khanates—Kazan, Astrakhan, Crimea, and Siberia—the ruins of a great Power. Ivan's son Basil (1505–33) acquired Pskoff, Smolensk, and Novgorod Sieverski, thus uniting nearly all the Russian principalities. At his death the Muscovite empire extended from Chernigoff to the White Sea, and from the borders of Livonia to the river Kama. For the Russian land lost to Lithuania ceaseless wars were waged between Poland and Russia for 200 years, Russia alternately recovering and losing her western provinces. In 1484, the river Desna was fixed as the boundary; in 1503, the river Sozh. Thus, at the end of the fifteenth century, Russia had just attained unity, and, throwing off her Asiatic conquerors, had become an independent State. Lying practically in the basin of the Volga, she had no outlets to the sea and no connexion with western Europe. Her great work of conquest and expansion had scarcely begun.

Of the Scandinavian kingdoms little need be said at this point. 1
At the close of the fifteenth century, they were united in a precarious and unsatisfactory union. This union, the Union of Calmar, had lasted since 1397. Before its formation, Denmark had been generally the most powerful of the three kingdoms, and more than once had almost acquired complete control of the Baltic. But the German Orders, which threatened her power in Esthonia, Sweden, which contested with her the possession of the southern provinces of Scandinavia, and the Hanse Towns, which constituted a great political force, set limits to her greatness. In 1397, the three kingdoms had agreed to an irrevocable union under a common sovereign, each retaining its own laws and institutions. Norway, the poorest of

the three, threw in her lot permanently with Denmark (1450), which alone gained by the union. Sweden, dissatisfied with her position, was from the middle of the fifteenth century generally under her own administrators. In 1448, a member of the House of Oldenburg was elected to the crown of the three kingdoms, and in 1460 he became in addition Count of Holstein and Duke of Schleswig, which two States in that year entered into an indissoluble union with each other. Round the Baltic the whole situation lacked stability. The division of territory between the three Scandinavian kingdoms followed no natural boundaries, and their union was straining asunder. The German Orders which held so much of the Baltic coast were declining, while behind them was Russia, rapidly consolidating, and Poland near to the zenith of her power.

SECTION II.

THE AGE OF HABSBURG POWER AND OF THE REFORMATION.

A. EUROPE.

SOMETHING must now be said of the formation of the Habsburg 10
Empire. Great aggregations of power were a new feature in European history. By a strange and fortuitous sequence of events in the later fifteenth and early sixteenth century there was formed a mighty State, which, overshadowing at once western and eastern Europe, exercised for more than a century a dominant influence on the European political system. Spain drove France out of southern Italy; but it was the Habsburg Empire which decided the political fate of Italy until the nineteenth century, and which put an end to French hopes of expansion south of the Alps. In Germany, the Habsburg Empire and the Reformation were the chief forces that controlled the growth and form of the German States. In south-eastern Europe, the Habsburgs represented the Western world against the Eastern, and divided political power with the Turk. By the balance of strength between the Habsburg and Ottoman Empires, the political division of south-eastern Europe and the western Mediterranean on the African littoral was determined. In the Netherlands, the religious policy of the Habsburgs provoked a revolt which, growing into a war of independence, resulted in the formation of the maritime State of the United Netherlands. So, too, by a reaction against their power England in self-defence was driven to the sea and began her transformation into Greater Britain. Thus the Habsburg Empire united Spain, settled the political system of Italy, checked the expansion of France, resisted the advance of the Turks, and played a part in the growth of Switzerland, the disintegration of Germany, the formation of Holland, and the foundation of Greater Britain. Each of these developments is a stage in the shaping of Europe.

The growth of the Habsburg Empire has already been traced through its earlier stages—to its rise to a great height as a German and Burgundian power. In 1490, the Habsburgs were exclusively a German

Power. In 1496, Maximilian married his son Philip to Joanna of Spain, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. In 1498, Joanna became the heiress of the Spanish monarchy. Philip died in 1506; but he left a son, Charles, who, on the death of Ferdinand of Spain in 1516, and of his grandfather Maximilian in 1519, inherited both the Spanish and Austrian dominions. In this union there was a certain homogeneity of race and civilisation between the Burgundian and Austrian lands; for both were chiefly German, nor were they very remote from each other; but the addition of the Spanish dominions, including most of the Iberian peninsula and Roussillon, the Balearic Islands, Sardinia and Sicily in the Mediterranean, the recently conquered kingdom of Naples in Italy, and the rapidly expanding conquests in America, gave a new character to the Habsburg Empire, which, henceforward, appeared rather as an aggregation of territories than an organic State. One other marriage was of great importance. In 1521 Ferdinand, the brother of Charles, married Anne, the sister of Lewis, King of Hungary and Bohemia since 1516. Anne was not at the time the heiress, but in 1526, at the battle of Mohács, the male line of the Hungarian royal House was destroyed, and the two kingdoms were driven by necessity to elect Ferdinand as their ruler. Bohemia and its dependencies, Transylvania, and such part of Hungary as the Turks did not conquer, were thus added to the Habsburg dominions. It was not the first time that Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia had been brought together, but this time it was to be a lasting union. The Habsburg Empire now consisted of a group of kingdoms, duchies, and counties, drawn together by every process by which territory is gained, inhabited by diverse races, situated in various parts of Europe and America, and having no natural connexion with each other, in many cases no other tie save that of a common head. Other features combined to give this strange Empire its unique character. The possession of the Empire gave it a power over, and a responsibility for, the political system of Germany, as well as a duty with regard to the Catholic Church, while the distribution of its territories drew it into Western and Eastern European problems. Austria thus became the centre of world politics. In the Colonial world, in the Mediterranean, in western, southern, and south-eastern Europe it had vital interests. Only from the contest for the Baltic did it at present stand aside.

26 In the course of the sixteenth century the Italian dominions grew. In 1500, Maximilian acquired Aquileia on the north-east Adriatic, and thus strengthened the Habsburg power between the Venetian possessions in Istria and Lombardy. Ferdinand conquered Naples by 1505. Charles added the duchy of Milan—diminished, indeed, by cessions to the Swiss in 1512 and 1513, and by the transference of Parma and Piacenza to the Pope in 1515—and gave to Spain a predominance in Italy.

On the resignation of Charles in 1556, the Habsburg Empire divided into the Spanish and Austrian branches. Though the two branches worked together for a long time, the great collection of dominions no longer owned a common lord. To the Spanish branch went Spain, the Netherlands, Franche Comté, the Italian and Mediterranean possessions, and the New World—to Austria the remainder—the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, the group of Austrian duchies, and the outlying possessions in Suabia and Elsass.

With the division of the Empire the decline of the western branch began. In 1581, the northern provinces of the Netherlands renounced their allegiance. In 1580, Portugal was acquired and the political unity of the Spanish peninsula was established for sixty years. In the seven- 46
teenth century, France took from Spain Roussillon, Franche Comté, Artois, and other frontier districts of the Netherlands, while France, England, and Holland challenged her colonial power. In the early 51
eighteenth century, she was deprived of all her European possessions outside of the Spanish peninsula, save some of the Balearic Isles. Austria took her place in Italy and the Southern Netherlands, while England took Minorca for a time, and Gibraltar for good. By 1715, the western branch of the Habsburgs had sunk very low. The eastern branch was more fortunate. Though the power of the Empire, save for a brief interval, could not be revived, and definitely declined, and though France advanced in Elsass, and, for a time, the Turks in Hungary, yet, at the end of the seventeenth century, Austria was a great Power, capable not only of recovering her lost possessions from the Turks, but of a counter-advance into their dominions, and able, at the partition of the Spanish Empire in 1715, to secure Spanish Italy and the Spanish Netherlands.

A rearrangement of Italy was amongst the first great political 26
changes in the sixteenth century. From 1494 to 1530, the political conditions of Italy were in a continual flux; but, by 1530, a general settlement was reached, which remained substantially undisturbed until the Peace of Utrecht. The main result was the subjection of Italy, and the consequent destruction of the possibility of a united Italy taking her place by the side of the other great States of Europe. That subjection was almost complete, and continued far into the nineteenth century, first to Spain, and then to Austria, which, after the War of the Spanish Succession, entered into the place of Spain. Venice, Savoy, the Papal States, and Genoa, preserved various degrees of independence.

The expansion of France into Italy with which these changes began was but a temporary movement. In 1494–5 Charles VIII added the kingdom of Naples to the Crown of France. His possession of it was brief. In 1496 the dispossessed sovereign was restored. In 1499 the French conquered Milan. They rewarded their Swiss allies with some

territory on the north of the Milanese and west of Lake Como, one
of the keys of Italy, and their Venetian allies with Cremona and the
Ghiara d'Adda. In 1500, by the Treaty of Granada, they agreed to
partition Naples with Spain. The French share was to be the city of
Naples and the northern districts, the Abruzzi and Terra di Lavoro;
the Spanish, Apulia and Calabria. But Naples, never partitioned or
dismembered, was not easy to divide. Hence arose a war, which resulted
in the expulsion of the French and the annexation of the kingdom of
Naples by Spain. In northern Italy the French enjoyed more success
and penetrated into central Italy, Venetian Lombardy, and Genoa,
only to be expelled in 1512 from all their Italian possessions. They
recovered Milan again, in 1515, and Genoa; but, in 1521–2, they were
expelled from both. The possession of Milan was an absolute necessity
to Charles V, so long as he held Naples and the Netherlands. It was
needed for the protection of Naples and of the line of communication
from Italy to Germany. At the Peace of Cambray, in 1529, the
French renounced their claims to dominion in Italy, and recognised
the acquisition of Milan and Naples by Spain. Though France after-
wards frequently sought to secure a gate of entrance into Italy, and
political influence there, she did not again seek extensive Italian
territories, until the question of the Spanish Succession arose; nor
94 did she again acquire them until the conquests of Bonaparte re-
volutionised the conditions of Italy. She held Saluzzo from 1548
11, 46, to 1588, and Pinerolo from 1631 to 1696, and she acquired Corsica
79 in 1768. But this island was the only extensive territory included
in the Italian political system which passed permanently into French
hands.

The dominion sought by France was acquired by Spain. The
political settlements of 1529–30 and 1559 left Spain in possession of
Naples and Milan, as well as of Sicily, Sardinia, and parts of Tuscany,
the Stato degli Presidi, and thus with virtual control of the whole
peninsula. Milan was first granted as an Imperial fief to Francesca
Sforza, but came into the direct possession of Spain in 1540, and
51 remained in her hands till 1706. It was transferred to Austria in
63 1715, and remained Austrian till 1796. By that time it was greatly
15 reduced in size from the Milan of the later fifteenth century. In the
north, parts were cut off and transferred to the Swiss Confederation in
1500, and again in 1512 and 1513. Parma and Piacenza were given
51 to the Pope in 1515. In the eighteenth century, Savoy encroached
63 on the west in 1713, 1738, and 1745, until she reached the Ticino,
which became henceforward the frontier between the two States.
Naples, Sardinia, and Sicily remained Spanish until the War of the
51 Spanish Succession. In 1713 Sicily was given to Savoy, in 1714 Sar-
dinia and Naples to Austria. In 1718 Sardinia was exchanged by
Austria for Sicily. The Stato degli Presidi, of which the chief towns

were Orbitello, Telamone, and Porto Ercole, came from Siena to Spain in 1555, and passed to Austria in 1714, and to Naples in 1735.

In the course of the Franco-Spanish struggle for dominion an important political change took place in central Italy, where the Papal States were consolidated into a real temporal Power. First, Caesar Borgia made conquests for himself of the towns of the Romagna; then, Julius II gathered up these conquests for the Papacy; acquired Perugia and Bologna in 1506; recovered in 1508 the towns of Rimini and Faenza, which Venice had seized in 1503, and thus extended and consolidated papal rule in the Romagna and central Italy. The duchies of Parma and Piacenza were acquired in 1515, but they were granted out in 1545 as a duchy to a member of the Farnese family, and passed in 1731 to a branch of the Spanish Bourbons. By the middle of the sixteenth century, papal rule extended from the Po to Terracina, though the duchies of Ferrara and Urbino were only dependencies, and did not come under papal rule until 1598 and 1631 respectively. This consolidation of the Papal States was one of the outstanding results of the period we are considering.

In a time of general change, the position of Venice excited envy and suspicion. Venice had made gains, in Lombardy from Milan, in 1499; the eastern coast towns of Naples, including Otranto, during the Neapolitan Wars; and Rimini and Faenza in the Romagna, in 1503, on the downfall of Caesar Borgia. In 1508, the League of Cambray was formed to divide the possessions of Venice. France and the Emperor were to share Venetian Lombardy, and the Emperor was to obtain in addition Venetian territory in Istria and Dalmatia; Spain was to recover the Neapolitan towns; the Pope Ravenna and the towns of the Romagna; Savoy to acquire Cyprus. Though the partition was almost carried through, Venice in the end recovered the main body of her territory. But her recent acquisitions were pared away. The towns of the Romagna went back to the Papal States in 1508, and, at the settlement of Italy in 1530, Venice surrendered Ravenna to the Pope, and the Apulian ports to Charles V. But, while she lost these outlying possessions, she retained her continuous dominion on the mainland until her downfall. In Lombardy, she was left with her frontier on the Adda, and this remained her frontier to the end. But her expansion was over. She did not disappear, like Milan and Florence, because the mother-city was impregnable in her lagoons. But the situation in which she was left was difficult. The Austrian territories touched her eastern and northern frontiers, the Papal States
and Milan her southern and western. Had the Valtelline, the long 30
valley of the Adda, reaching from the head of Lake Como to the Stelvio Pass and connecting Milan with Tyrol, ever fallen into Habsburg hands, Venice would have lain in a circle of Habsburg and papal territory.

When the French were expelled from Italy, the Medici were restored to Florence. In 1530 Florence became a principality. In 1557 she annexed Siena, and in 1567 became a grand duchy, comprising all Tuscany except Lucca and the Stato degli Presidi. She passed under Spanish and, in the eighteenth century, under Austrian influence. When
63 the Medici became extinct in 1737, the grand duchy was assigned to Duke Francis of Lorraine, afterwards Emperor Francis I.

25 Savoy was the only native Italian State which showed much political activity and expansive power in the period of Italian subjection. She grew steadily, and grew in Italian territory. For losses to France and Switzerland she found compensation on the plains of Lombardy and the Mediterranean shore. Acquisitions of small principalities, cessions from Montferrat and Milan, enfeoffments by the Emperor, were the means of her increase. She gained Cocconato from Montferrat in 1503, and Asti, Cherasco, and Ceva in 1531, as a grant from the Emperor to Beatrice of Portugal, wife of Charles III. The purchase of Tenda in 1575, and of Oneglia later, extended her footing in Liguria. North of the Alps, meanwhile, she suffered losses. In 1536 Bern, Freiburg, and Valais took away all her possessions north of the Lake of Geneva and Chablais to the south of the lake. Some of these were recovered in 1567, when Bern gave back Gex and her conquests south of the lake, and Valais part of hers. In 1588 Savoy conquered Saluzzo, which France had held for forty years, but secured it at the Peace of Lyons, 1601, only by exchange for Bresse, Bugey, Valromey, and Gex. At the Peace of Chieri, 1631, she obtained the possessions of Montferrat north of the Po, and the greater part of those south of the Tanaro. At the Peace of Loretto (1696) she regained Pinerolo, which France had held since 1631, thus expelling the French from Piedmont, and revised her Alpine boundaries with France. In Italy, she acquired the remainder of the possessions of Montferrat, Alessandria and the neighbouring districts of Milan, and the island of Sicily, which was in 1718 exchanged for Sardinia. In 1738, by the Peace of Vienna, she made further gains from Milan to the south and north-east, particularly Tortona and Novara; while, in 1745, at the expense of the same State, the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle carried her frontiers still further east to Lake Maggiore and the river Ticino. Thus, in the course of events, Savoy, driven more and more into Italy, consolidated her power in Piedmont, acquired western Lombardy, and planted herself firmly on the Ligurian coast.

Of the smaller Italian States, the duchy of Mantua remained in the possession of the Gonzaga, until, in 1708, it became forfeit to the Emperor, whose possession of it was recognised in 1714. In 1536, Mantua had acquired the duchy of Montferrat; but this, in 1713, passed finally into the hands of Savoy. The House of Este continued to hold
26 Modena and Reggio of the Emperor, and Ferrara of the Pope. In 1598, Ferrara was annexed to the Papal States. Genoa preserved her

independence and her mainland possessions, but Corsica was in 1768 63
taken from her by France.

The formation of the Habsburg Power checked the expansion of 11, 46,
France in Italy and drove her to expand in the more natural direction 79
which she had followed in the fifteenth century. Thus, unlike Spain, which grew by distant conquests and acquisitions, France grew within certain natural geographical limits on her eastern and southern frontiers. Acquiring territories which were geographically continuous or connected with the French kingdom, and conquering them piecemeal, she was able thoroughly to incorporate her acquisitions and maintain her unity and strength; and thus her conquests differed very much from the heterogeneous collection of territories which were drawn into the Habsburg Empire, or from the scattered possessions which colonisation and conquest added to the English Crown. French expansion was for the most part in those middle regions between France and Germany whose political future the Middle Ages handed down as a problem for the modern world to solve. With Spain and Austria France disputed and fought for the roads and wealth of this group of countries, and gradually partitioned them. She was driven to acquire dominion here, because of the defenceless character of her eastern frontier, particularly in the north, where her capital lay exposed; and the need was the more imperative, inasmuch as a line of Habsburg possessions hemmed her in. When Spain was at the height of her power, her territories here were a menace to France, and when she declined they became a temptation. So were the Austrian, for the main portion of the Austrian territories lay at a considerable distance, and she would not easily hold the outlying parts; so, too, were the parts of the Empire which relied on the Emperor for protection.

The attempt of France to acquire dominion in Italy has been already discussed. The price of freedom to make that attempt she paid in the Treaty of Barcelona (1493), when Charles VIII restored Roussillon and Cerdagne to Aragon, and in the Treaty of Senlis (1493), when he resigned his claim on Artois, Franche Comté, and Charolais. The Italian Wars developed into a struggle between Habsburg and Valois, which checked for a century the expansion of France. When, in 1529, at the Peace of Cambray, the first great settlement between the two combatants was made, France recognised the unquestioned supremacy of Spain in Italy, and surrendered her feudal suzerainty over Flanders and Artois; but she retained her Burgundian acquisitions. In the last of her wars with Charles V, France abandoned the hope of recovering dominion in Italy and sought expansion on her eastern frontier. In 1550 she recovered Boulogne, lost to England in 1546, and, in 1558, Calais, after more than two hundred years of foreign occupation. In the meantime in 1552 Henry II laid hold of the three Imperial bishoprics in Lorraine—Metz, Toul, and Verdun. The Peace of Cateau Cambrésis, in 1559,

brought a struggle of more than fifty years' duration to a close, and marked a definite stage in the formation of the European political system. Italy was left as she had been left in 1529. Savoy was re-established as a buffer State between France and Italy, though France retained Saluzzo, which she had conquered in 1548. The duchy of Burgundy passed, without doubt, into the French kingdom; Flanders and Artois became with equal certainty parts of the Netherlands, and the partition of the Burgundian inheritance was made at last. England also lost finally her foothold in France. All these decisions were the termination of long-standing disputes. One other—the retention by France of the three bishoprics acquired in 1552—was the opening of a new. With this acquisition, France extended outside of the Burgundian inheritance into a German State, to which she had no sort of claim. She acquired, moreover, patches of territory which were disconnected from each other and from the main body of the kingdom; and such a conquest could only be a preliminary to further advances. The Habsburg Power had closed Italy to France, and driven her into Germany, now so much weakened and divided by the Reformation that a strong border State might hope to make gains out of its troubles. But no further advance was made by France during the sixteenth century. The Peace of Vervins, 1598, which ended another stage in the Habsburg-Valois duel, was a confirmation of the Peace of 1559, and left France still hemmed in by Habsburg territories. It was to be her work in the seventeenth century to free herself from this position. One important gain, however, was made by Henry IV. By the Treaty of Lyons, 1601, he obtained from Savoy Bresse, Bugey, Valromey, and Gex, in exchange for Saluzzo, which Savoy had reconquered in 1588, and thus brought the French frontier in this quarter to a more defensible natural boundary.

18 It seems desirable now to turn attention to the political changes caused by the Reformation. Though primarily a religious movement, the Reformation exerted a great influence on the political system of Europe. It did not affect Italy, Spain, Portugal, south-eastern Europe, or even France very much from this point of view; but it exerted a strong influence on the shaping of northern Europe in Scandinavia, Germany, the Netherlands and the British Isles. Its influence neither coincided with, nor cut across, that of the Habsburg Power, which was the principal force shaping the political system of Europe in the sixteenth century, but ran directly counter to it. The Reformation gradually divided Germany into two hostile camps; frustrated the attempts to achieve German unity and Imperial absolutism; led to the growth of princely power and the progressive secularisation of ecclesiastical territory in the interests of the Princes, and so to the break-up of Germany into a group of States. In the British Isles, by assimilating the religions of England and Scotland, it drew the two countries together for mutual defence, and foreshadowed their future union, and, at the same time, it

contributed to the expansion of England into Greater Britain. In Scandinavia, it sustained the strength of Swedish independence, and hastened the rise of Sweden to her dominant position on the Baltic. In the Netherlands it produced the division of the provinces, and inspired the independence of Holland. Switzerland it divided and paralysed, giving the Confederation a form which it retained until the French Revolution. In Poland, it inserted a divisive force into the heart of a weak State. It thus diminished the political, just as it broke the religious, unity of Europe.

In Germany, the Reformation was rapidly adopted by the Princes and the Imperial towns. When, after the first trial of strength between the two religions, a settlement was made in the Peace of Augsburg, 1555, the division of territories in Germany gave to Protestantism Holstein, Brunswick, Saxony (Electoral and Ducal), Hesse, the Palatinate, Würtemberg, Baden, Mansfeld, Anhalt, Brandenburg, Pomerania, the bishopric of Verden and almost all the Imperial towns—to Catholicism the Habsburg lands, Bavaria, Mecklenburg, Nassau, Lorraine and the ecclesiastical States. None of these last had as yet been secularised, except such as lay within the territories of the Protestant States, Saxony, Brandenburg, and Pomerania.

One important territorial change had resulted from the Schmalkaldic 14
War. The division of Saxony between the Albertine and Ernestine lines has been already explained. The defeat of the Elector at Mühlberg (1547) and the victory of Maurice were followed by a partition of the Ernestine territories. The electorate and the Ernestine part of the Osterland were handed over to the Albertine branch. The Vogtland was given to Bohemia, as also was Sagan, an Albertine possession. After the defeat of the Emperor and the death of Maurice, new changes were made in the Treaty of Naumburg, in 1554. Altenburg, Neustadt, and some other districts were restored to the Ernestine branch. Later changes gave Neustadt back to the Albertines, to whom also Vogtland returned in 1575.

The principle of *cujus regio ejus religio* adopted in the Peace of 28
Augsburg increased the power of the Princes, and the right of secularising ecclesiastical territory which the Protestants claimed opened the way to great territorial changes. The Electors of Brandenburg and Saxony and the Duke of Pomerania secularised the bishoprics whose extensive territories broke the unity of their States—Cammin in Pomerania; Brandenburg, Havelberg, and Lebus in Brandenburg; Meissen, Naumburg, and Merseburg in Saxony. For a few years after the Peace of Augsburg Protestantism continued to make advances. By 1566, all the northern bishoprics except Hildesheim were in Protestant hands. The Counter-reformation, however, retrieved much of the ground lost to Catholicism, particularly in the Rhine country. Thus, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, the division of States had somewhat

changed. In 1610, the principal Roman Catholic States were the Austrian lands, Bavaria, Berg, Jülich, Hesse-Darmstadt, and the ecclesiastical States of Mainz, Trier, Cologne, Würzburg, Bamberg, Münster, Osnabrück, Paderborn, Bremen, Verden, Minden, Hildesheim, Passau, Ratisbon, Salzburg, Speier, Strassburg, and Constance. The Protestant States were divided into Lutheran and Calvinist, of which the latter included Brandenburg, Baireuth, Ansbach, Cleve, Mark, the Rhenish Palatinate, the Upper Palatinate, Zweibrücken, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Anhalt, Pomerania, and the former Brunswick-Lüneburg, Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, East Friesland, Holstein, Mecklenburg, Würtemberg, Neuburg, Baden, Saxony, and Saxe-Lauenburg, with the archbishopric of Magdeburg and the bishoprics of Halberstadt, Lübeck, Schwerin, Ratzeburg, and Worms, in addition to the bishoprics of Brandenburg, Saxony, and Pomerania previously mentioned. The great majority of the Imperial towns remained Protestant, and adherents of the reformed creeds were numerous in Austria, Bohemia and its dependencies, and in some of the Catholic States of north-western Germany.

In the first years of the war, 1620–4, Protestantism was finally suppressed in the Austrian dominions and in Bavaria; and, after his successes in 1626–8, the Emperor endeavoured to put into force in northern Germany the policy of restitution which he had carried
31[1] through in southern Germany. By the Edict of Restitution, 1629, all ecclesiastical lands and property secularised by Protestants since 1552 were to be restored. This threatened the Protestant possession of the sees of Ratzeburg, Schwerin, Bremen, Verden, Minden, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Lübeck, Cammin, Havelberg, Brandenburg, Lebus, Naumburg, Merseburg, and Meissen, and in the first seven of the above the restitution was either carried through or begun. It was also carried through in some twenty-three towns, chiefly Imperial, and applied to much property in Elsass, Franconia, Lower Saxony, and Suabia. The resistance of the local authorities, and the course of events after 1630, eventually rendered it a dead letter. In the Peace of Prague, which was concluded between the Emperor and most of the German Princes in 1635, the date of 1627 was accepted as the basis of agreement as to the possession of ecclesiastical property and territory—a decision which deprived the Protestants of the bishopric of Halberstadt, but left them in possession of a great number of the northern bishoprics.

13 The Reformation made headway in Switzerland from two centres, Zurich and Geneva; but it never gained the whole country. Uri, Schwyz, Unterwalden, Luzern, Freiburg, Zug, the Valais, and the Valtelline remained Catholic. In 1586, the Catholic cantons formed the Borromean League for the maintenance of the Catholic faith. This crystallised the division of the Confederation into two parts, and almost

[1] Map 31 is based on a map in Tupetz, T., *Der Streit um die geistlichen Güter und das Restitutionsedikt* (Vienna, 1883).

dissolved the old federal constitution. From the struggles of the Reformation there thus emerged two Switzerlands—the one Protestant the other Catholic—the one embracing the industrial plains of the west, the other the pastoral mountainous regions of the east—each with its own Diet, its own interests, its own policy—the two united in a Confederation which lacked the essential power of action.

The Reformation entered France in the reign of Francis I, and, **19, 18**
though persecution restrained its outward manifestation, its adherents gradually spread, first in the large towns, then in the Dauphiné and the Vivarais, and up the waterways of the great rivers. In the fifties, it gained organisation, and, in 1562, it received legal recognition. The strength of the Huguenots was concentrated in the area between the Loire, the Pyrenees and the Rhone. They had outposts in the Dauphiné and Normandy, were strongest in the Gironde, and weakest in the east and north-east. As a result of a long series of civil wars, they established themselves as a State within a State, with an organisation of their own and a guarantee of their position in a number of *places de sûreté*[1]. One reason for the inactivity of France between 1559 and 1598, and for the precarious position in which she stood at the beginning of the seventeenth century, is to be sought in the internal division which the Reformation thus created within her borders. It was left to Richelieu to break the political power of the Huguenots, in 1622–8.

In Scandinavia, the vast extent of ecclesiastical property was a strong **18**
predisposing cause of the Reformation. The King of Denmark embraced Lutheranism in 1525; the conversion of the country and the secularisation of church property rapidly followed. In Sweden, the Reformation began in 1527, and was definitely carried through; but it had not the same sweeping success as in Denmark.

In England, the authority of the Pope was first repudiated in 1534, and a form of the reformed faith was adopted finally in 1559; in Scotland, the change to the Calvinistic faith was authoritatively made in 1560–1. Various forms of the reformed faith were introduced into Poland, and, with religious liberty, made rapid headway. By 1572, the Protestant sects were widespread. The divisions between Lutherans, Calvinists, and Anti-Trinitarians enabled the Counter-reformation to recover the country. In the confusion of Hungary, and under the tolerant Turkish rule, the reformed faith found favourable conditions of growth. Calvinism spread through the great central plain into Transylvania, where in 1557 both religions were tolerated. The tolerant spirit of the Ottoman Government contributed to prolong its rule; for the Protestant Magyar noblemen dreaded the persecuting Habsburg Government. In Italy, the reformed faith gained adherents in Venice, Ferrara, Modena, Naples, and Lucca; but it was rapidly and completely suppressed. In

[1] So far as regards the *places de sûreté*, map 19 is based on the map contained in Anquez, L., *Histoire des Assemblées Politiques des Reformés de France* (Paris, 1859).

Spain, it never had much vitality, except in Seville and Valladolid, where it was easily stamped out by the Inquisition.

22 Under the combined influence of Habsburg rule and the Reformation, great changes came about in the Netherlands. Out of the group of lordships, counties, towns, and ecclesiastical territories which the Burgundian Dukes had gathered together, arose a new State, destined to play a most important part in the political system of Europe, which, as the United Provinces, the kingdom of the Netherlands, or the kingdom of Holland, has guarded its independence and the integrity of its territory down to the present day, and, as a maritime and colonial Power, gained and still holds a large dominion beyond the seas. In spite of losses to the kingdom of France, the Burgundian lands formed a very considerable inheritance when they passed into the possession of the future Emperor Charles V. It was his work to enlarge and define their area and to give them a much greater degree of unity than they had previously possessed. Their frontiers with France had always been shifting and uncertain. As a result of the struggle between Francis and Charles they were at last determined. By the Treaties of Madrid (1526) and Cambray (1529) Francis resigned his suzerainty over Flanders and Artois, and Charles V his claim to the Somme towns. In the subsequent wars Charles maintained this settlement, and the Peace of Cateau Cambrésis (1559) confirmed that of Cambray, and recognised the organic unity of the Netherlands. At the same time Charles extended and consolidated his territories. He added Tournay in 1521; Friesland, after a long war, in 1523; the temporal sovereignty of Utrecht in 1527; Gelderland and Zutphen, finally, in 1543, and Cambray in the same year. The seventeen provinces held by him were the duchies of Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg and Gelderland; the counties of Flanders, Artois, Hainault, Namur, Zeeland, Holland, and Zutphen; the lordships of Friesland, Groningen, Overyssel, Utrecht, and Mechlin; and the marquisate of Antwerp. In addition, he gave to the Netherlands a separate organisation and a centralised government, and declared them to be a single and indivisible inheritance. Save that they were joined with Franche Comté and Luxemburg in the Burgundian Circle of the Empire, they were treated as much as possible as a separate unit. In 1548, their relations to the Empire were reconsidered, and they were declared to be not subject to its laws; and Charles proposed to revise their ecclesiastical organisation so that no part of the provinces should be within an external see. Thus, the Netherlands tended to form a compact as well as a most important part of Charles' scattered dominions. Only the bishopric of Liége broke their geographical unity, and Charles drew that see more and more under his influence. Philip II, to whom in the division of Habsburg power (1556) these provinces passed, continued his father's work of consolidation; but his religious policy provoked a rebellion. In the southern provinces this was suppressed, but the

northern provinces of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, the northern part of
Gelderland (with Zutphen), Overyssel, Friesland, and Groningen formed
in 1579 the Union of Utrecht, and in 1581 abjured the sovereignty of
Philip. In 1609 Spain virtually recognised their independence, which
was also allowed by the Empire at the Peace of Westphalia, 1648. In 41
the course of long wars, the United Provinces conquered parts of the
southern Netherlands—the northern parts of Flanders, including Sluys
and Hulst, and of Brabant, including Breda and Bergen, and the
Overmaaslands, viz. parts of Gelders and Limburg, including Maestricht.
These lands, known as Generaliteitsland, were governed as common
lands, and were confirmed to the United Provinces in the treaties of
1648 and 1661. Being possessed of them the Dutch were enabled
to control the mouths of the Scheldt, Meuse, and Rhine, and to ruin
the trade of Antwerp.

A great change was produced in the position on the Baltic by the 17
dissolution of the Union of Calmar. That union had been straining
asunder since the middle of the fifteenth century. In 1520, the Swedes
revolted, and Sweden definitely released herself from the dominion of
Denmark. At that moment Sweden was small and poor. She held not
a half of the Scandinavian peninsula. The Danes retained Norway
which included the provinces of Jemteland and Herjedalen, on the
eastern side of the Scandinavian Alps, and the coastal strip of the
south-eastern corner of the peninsula, the fertile provinces of Skaane,
Bleking, and Halland. In addition, Bohus was Norwegian; and Sweden
thus reached the sea in the south-west only at one precarious outlet,
Elfborg, at the mouth of the river Göta. Of the islands, Sweden held
Öland only. Even Gothland, the stepping-stone across the Baltic, was
a fief of the Danish Crown. East of the Baltic, however, Finland, up
to Viborg, was Swedish. The centre of the kingdom lay in the region
of low plains stretching from the Cattegat to the lower end of the Gulf
of Bothnia, which interrupts with a broad depression the great forest-clad plateau that occupies the north and is continued in Småland to
the south. Geographical conditions marked out the destinies of Sweden.
She would need to reach the open sea by acquiring the southern provinces
held by Denmark, to reach the mountain frontier of the west by acquiring the Norwegian provinces that overlapped it; and, if she were to be
great, to extend her dominion round the Baltic, for little profit could
be made by conquering Norway and reaching the North Sea. Hence,
round the Baltic was the sphere of Swedish expansion. But the story
of this is best told in another connexion.

The dissolution of the Union did Denmark little injury. Throughout
the sixteenth century, she remained more powerful than she had been
before, dominant in the Baltic. The waters of the Sound were the
centre of her dominion. On the east lay the southern provinces of
Scandinavia, and further east the islands of Bornholm, Gottland, and

Ösel. To the north was Norway, scantily peopled and poor. West lay the group of islands which linked up the southern end of Scandinavia with the mainland of Europe and the outreaching peninsula, where was the province of Jutland; to the south were the two duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. These two duchies, united to each other indissolubly, became a separate possession of the Danish royal House in 1460, and in 1533 joined Denmark in a federal alliance on almost equal terms. In 1544 they were partitioned between the King of Denmark and his two brothers, so that three lines ruled in them. For Holstein the three did homage to the Emperor; in Schleswig two of the brothers resisted the claim of the third, the King of Denmark, to feudal suzerainty.
54 In the course of time, by the extinction of families, the two duchies were divided between the King of Denmark and the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, their possessions being scattered over both duchies. Since, in Schleswig, the King of Denmark was suzerain of the Duke, and, in Holstein, both were vassals of the Empire, and since Schleswig was indissolubly united to Holstein, and both together were united to the kingdom of Denmark, the relations between the kingdom and the duchies were most complicated. On the west of Holstein was the district of Ditmarschen, where a kind of peasant republic existed. In 1559, it was conquered by the combined efforts of King and Duke, and became part of the royal share of Holstein.

3 While in western Europe the political settlement and the division of disputed territory depended on the balance of power between the kingdom of France and the Habsburg Empire, in south-eastern Europe the Ottoman Turk divided dominion with the Habsburg Empire and the Venetian Republic. In western Europe the scene of struggle slowly shifted from Italy to the eastern frontier of the Empire, in south-eastern Europe it centred in the Aegean by sea, and by land in the hitherto undivided kingdom of Hungary, which was now partitioned between Ottoman and Habsburg along a frontier that, though continually changing, changed over but a small area for a century and a half.

When the advance of the Turks was resumed in the early sixteenth century, it was in Asia and Africa that they at first made conquests. From Persia they took parts of Armenia, Kurdistan, and Upper Mesopotamia by 1515; they acquired Syria, Egypt, and Arabia in 1515–17, conquered Algeria in 1519, and Tunis in 1534. In northern Africa, as
7 in eastern Europe, they came in contact with the Habsburgs. Between 1494 and 1516 Spain, following the Moors into Africa, had acquired a number of coast towns, including Melilla, Oran, Mers-el-Kebir, Bugia, and Tripoli. In the struggle that ensued some of these were lost. But Charles V conquered Tunis and Goletta in 1535, and Spanish influence was maintained in Tunis, until Spain withdrew from Goletta in 1574; while Oran was not lost until 1708 and was again
65 recovered. With the exception of the unconquered Spanish towns,

northern Africa, to the borders of Morocco, passed by 1540 under Turkish rule, which was not seriously threatened by any European Power until the French began their colonial expansion in Algiers in the early nineteenth century.

Meanwhile the Ottoman arms were advancing on the mainland by 21
the land route up the Danube. In 1521 Belgrade was taken, and in 1526 the medieval kingdom of Hungary was overthrown at the battle of Mohács. Hungary consists of three mountainous regions girdling a great plain—in the south the Dalmatian Alps, in the north the Western Carpathians, in the east the Eastern Carpathians. As a result of a series of wars, the Turks gradually made themselves masters of the central part of Hungary—the flat fertile and well-watered plains through which the Danube and the Theiss flow in their passage from Western to Eastern Carpathians. They took Buda in 1529, and, extending their
conquests east and west, they had, when the truce of 1547 was arranged, 10
brought Szegedin, Gran, Wischegrad, and Stuhlweissenburg under their rule. The Treaty of Sitvatorok, 1606, which formed the basis of a more lasting settlement, gave them in addition Tata, Eger, Szolnok, Veszprém,
and the Banat of Temesvar. Other conquests were made in the third 48
quarter of the seventeenth century. In 1658, they gained a part of the possessions of Transylvania, including Grosswardein and Debreczen, and in 1664, by the Treaty of Vasvar, a considerable extent of territory west of Lake Balaton and north of the bend of the Danube; but their retreat was then near at hand.

Thus, from the middle of the sixteenth until nearly the end of the seventeenth century, Hungary remained partitioned, and the Ottoman and Habsburg Powers swayed backwards and forwards on a fluctuating frontier. Austria managed to retain the mountainous strip of Hungary which flanked the eastern borders of her hereditary possessions, and included Agram, most of Croatia, Upper Slavonia, and part of northwestern Hungary. The central river valleys and the mountainous south, that is, most of the Magyar part of Hungary, were governed by the Turks from Buda, and divided into the three vilayets of Bosnia, Buda, and Temesvar. In the dissolution of the old order the principality of Transylvania broke away from Hungary. It laid hold of a group of counties in north-eastern Hungary, known as *Partes Adnexae Regni Hungariae.* The extent of this area fluctuated during the period of Turkish rule—for sometimes the Turks, and sometimes Transylvania, were in possession of parts of it. The relations of Transylvania itself to Ottoman and Habsburg also fluctuated; but the principality was generally under Ottoman influence. Austria acquired it in 1600, but was compelled to acknowledge its independence again in 1606. The two contending Powers, Ottoman and Habsburg, divided its allegiance, as they divided Hungary, in unequal shares for many years. Such was the great northern sweep of Turkish power. Central Hungary was acquired, Wallachia,

Moldavia, and Transylvania, enlarged by its conquests, became dependencies. Even Austrian Hungary at times paid tribute, and a last effort before its decline gave to the Ottoman empire a momentary possession of Podolia, in 1672–6.

Meantime, in the Aegean, the Morea, and Dalmatia, the Ottoman empire grew at the expense of Venice. Dalmatia, except the cities, was conquered by 1540. In the same year, at the peace signed at Constantinople, Urana, Nadin, and other places on the Dalmatian coast, and the Aegean Islands, Skyros, Paros, Patmos, Aegina, Stampalia, and Nios were formally ceded to Solyman. The duchy of Naxos, a Latin State formed by a Venetian in 1207 and including many Aegean islands, was practically absorbed by 1537; but Naxos itself did not pass under Turkish rule till 1566. Antivari in Albania, and the great island of Cyprus, were acquired by the Turks in 1571 in spite of their defeat at Lepanto. Rhodes had capitulated in 1522. Then came a long pause in their acquisitions, until the prolonged
48 struggle (1641–69) which gave them possession of Crete. The contest was not ended, for, at the end of the seventeenth century, in 1685–99, Venice reconquered Aegina and most of the Peloponnese, only to lose them again finally in 1718 at the Peace of Passarowitz, and with them the two fortresses of Spinalonga and Suda which she had retained in Crete in 1669, and the islands of Tinos and Mykonos. This gave to the Ottoman empire complete control of the Aegean, and confined Venice to the Adriatic, where she had been more fortunate, recovering Santa Maura and Butrinto and gaining Prevesa.

B. GREATER EUROPE.

2 Portugal, with her favourable position on the Atlantic and her proximity to Africa, led the way for the expansion of Europe into other continents. Castile followed in her footsteps. The desire of the West for the trade of the East was the strongest original motive in this new movement, for Ottoman conquests closed the familiar overland means of communication between the two. In the century between 1450 and 1550, an immense work was done and the arena of European energy wonderfully enlarged. Portuguese navigators and generals built for Portugal an empire in the East; Castilian explorers and captains founded the immense over-sea dominion of Spain.

The colonial enterprise of the Portuguese grew out of their Moorish wars. Following the Moors to Africa they founded a dominion, 1415–71, which they retained until 1578. In a series of naval expeditions they discovered Madeira in 1419, the Azores in 1448, the Cape Verde Islands 1449, and, following the coast of Africa, they reached the Cape of Good Hope in 1486. Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape in 1498, and, making his way to India, formed the first eastern settlement of the Portuguese

at Cochin on the Malabar coast, thus bringing Portugal into touch with the rich civilisation of the East. Moving further east, the Portuguese discovered Ceylon in 1506, Malacca in 1509, the Spice Islands in 1511, and in time reached New Guinea, China and Japan. Meantime, in 1500, another navigator, Cabral, drifted across the Atlantic to the coast of Brazil, and began Portuguese dominion in the New World.

Castilian ships followed the Portuguese in these earlier discoveries; and, in 1479, the Canaries were, by treaty, assigned to Castile. But America was to be the field of Spain. In 1492, Columbus, in the service of Ferdinand and Isabella, crossed the Atlantic and discovered the Bahamas, Cuba, and Hispaniola; on a second voyage, in 1493, Jamaica; on a third, in 1498, Trinidad and the mouth of the Orinoco, and in a final voyage he reached Honduras. Other explorers speedily amplified his work.

Of the new-found territories the Papacy claimed to be the disposer, and in 1493 it fixed the meridian 100 leagues west of the Azores as the line of division between the spheres of the two competing nations. By the Treaty of Tordesillas between Spain and Portugal, in 1494, the line was changed to one 375 leagues from the islands, and, in 1506, the Pope confirmed the arrangement. But new discoveries raised new problems. The Moluccas and Banda Islands in the east fell into dispute. So, in 1529, by the Treaty of Saragossa, the meridian 17 degrees east of the Moluccas was agreed upon as a second line of demarcation. It was provided, however, that Portugal should keep Brazil, and Spain the Philippine Islands, and that Spain should receive a sum of money for her right to the Moluccas.

Spanish explorers following Columbus increased European knowledge of Central and South America. Possession was taken of Cuba, Porto Rico, and Jamaica in 1508–10; the Pacific Ocean was discovered in 1513; Florida in the same year; Mexico in 1518, and, in a search for the westward route to the East, Magellan rounded Cape Horn in 1520, sailing through the straits to which he gave his name, and reached the Philippines in 1521, to perish at Zebu. Conquest followed in the wake of exploration. Mexico was conquered in 1519–21, Peru in 1531, Terra Firma in 1532, Chile in 1535, New Granada in 1536. The southern continent was traversed by way of the Amazon in 1541, while in the north-west the Spaniards, proceeding through Lower California in 1534–5, reached Cape Mendocino by 1542, and, in the south-east, planted their first settlement at Buenos Aires in 1535.

The Portuguese, seeking commerce rather than the precious metals, and for the most part in a different hemisphere, never gained, except in Brazil, the extensive territorial dominions of the Spaniards. The Portuguese empire was a maritime empire—a series of islands, ports, small settlements, and protected coasts, stretching from Portugal round Africa, east and west, Arabia, and India to the distant islands of the

Malay archipelago. The foundations of their dominion were laid by a great Viceroy, Alburquerque, 1509–15. He planted the capital at Goa, in 1510; reduced Malacca in 1511, and Hormuz in 1515, to get the trade of Persia, and established the Portuguese at Ternate and Tidor in the Moluccas, where the Spanish rights were bought out in 1529. In 1517, the Portuguese occupied Colombo, and gradually acquired the trade of Ceylon; in the same year they opened trade with China, and they settled at Macao in 1520, where their sovereignty was recognised in 1587. They captured Diu in 1535, and formed a connexion in 1542 with Japan, where they planted a factory in 1548. The central point of their eastern dominions was Goa. In addition they had Diu and Damaun in the Deccan, Cochin and other places on the Malabar coast, Negapatam on the Coromandel coast, Malacca in the Malacca peninsula, Ceylon, and settlements in the Spice Islands, Java, and New Guinea. On the Persian Gulf they had Muscat and Hormuz. In eastern Africa, where they did not attempt dominion but sought only halting-places, they established themselves from the Zambesi to Delagoa Bay, and built forts at Sofala in 1505 and Mozambique in 1507. They were the only European Power established on the west coast of Africa, where they held points so far south as Cape Negro, and all the islands off the coast, including the Azores, except the Canaries. The colonisation of Brazil was seriously begun in 1531, and the coastal regions were divided into a number of captaincies. Save for the Spaniards, who opposed them in the extreme east, their principal enemy had been the Arabs, whom they had displaced from the great trading centres of the East. Other European Powers, England and France, were not quite inactive while this great work of colonisation was going forward, but their labours, less happily directed, produced little result. In the search for a north-west passage to the East they played a part. The voyages of Cabot, in 1497–8, unfolded the existence of Labrador, Newfoundland, and the north-eastern coast of North America. Verrazzano, in the service of Francis I, sailing due west, further explored the eastern coast of North America; and Jacques Cartier, in 1534–6 and in 1542, made his way up the St Lawrence, where Roberval made an unsuccessful attempt to found a French colony in 1540. Thus the great discoveries were made, and the way was prepared for the later work of colonisation.

SECTION III.

THE RISE OF FRANCE AND SWEDEN.

A. EUROPE.

For a large part of the seventeenth century, France in western 41
Europe, and Sweden in north-eastern Europe, were the Powers which
exerted the greatest influence in the shaping of the European system.
Apart from the temporary advance of the Habsburg Power at the
beginning of the Thirty Years' War, the rise of France and of Sweden
forms the principal feature in the change of political power during this
period. Their united efforts prevented a restoration of the Empire under
the Habsburgs as a reality; and, while France broke the power of Spain,
Sweden confined Austria to south-eastern Europe. The result of long
wars was an expansion of France, a Swedish dominion round the Baltic,
a further disintegration of Germany, and at the same time the transfer-
ence of colonial power to the new maritime nations.

At the end of the sixteenth century, France was in a weak position, 46, 10
owing to the line of Habsburg territories which flanked her eastern
frontier, and to the tradition of cooperation between the two branches
of this great family. Henry IV, however, strengthened this frontier 25
by one important acquisition. By the Treaty of Lyons, 1601, he made
an exchange with Savoy of Saluzzo for the territories of Bresse, Bugey,
Valromey, and Gex, which, lying between the Rhone and the Saône,
connected Savoy with Franche Comté, and carried her frontiers perilously
into the exposed east of France. In the opening years of the struggle
in Germany Spain increased very greatly her power on that frontier. She
came to terms with Savoy in 1614; occupied the Valtelline, the important 30
link of communication between Milan and Tyrol, in 1622, and temporarily
occupied the Rhenish Palatinate in the same year. It was Richelieu's
work to dislodge Spain from the Valtelline, to close the passes, to occupy
Pinerolo in 1631, and to begin a war with Spain and Austria, which,
lasting in the latter case till 1648, in the former till 1659, yielded to France
a harvest of acquisitions. At the Peace of Westphalia France gained 40
the formal recognition of her sovereignty over the three bishoprics—
Metz, Toul, and Verdun—which she had held since 1552, and with the

bishoprics was included Moyenvic. She took Austria's place in Elsass, entering into Austria's possessions and rights there. The cession was vague. It was described as the landgravate of both Elsasses. Elsass consisted of two main parts, Upper and Lower. In Upper Elsass, Austria had a feudal suzerainty over four-fifths of the land. In Lower Elsass, there was no landgravate over the whole territory. Austria had only an administrative authority over the ten Imperial towns, Landau, Weissenburg, Hagenau, Rosheim, Oberchenheim, Schlettstadt, Colmar, Kaisersberg, Türkheim, Münster, and some villages. She had no authority over either the bishopric or town of Strassburg. Both were immediate possessions of the Empire. The vagueness of the cession, for which both parties shared the responsibility, made it possible for France, later, deliberately to misinterpret the clause and to annex the whole of Elsass. In addition, the great town of Breisach was made over to France, and she was permitted to place a garrison in the strong fortress of Philippsburg,
46 thus acquiring two points of entrance into southern Germany. She secured a similar position in Italy where she retained Pinerolo, ceded to her by Savoy, which enabled her to watch the movements of this important buffer State. When, in 1659, after a quarter of a century of war, France came to terms with Spain in the Peace of the Pyrenees, she much increased her gains. On the south, by the cession of Roussillon, with part of Cerdagne and Conflans on the French side of the Pyrenees, she gained the Pyrenees for her frontier. In the north-east she received parts of the Spanish Netherlands—in Artois, all the towns and bailiwicks except Aire and St Omer, which included Arras, Hesdin, and such important places as Gravelines, Landrecies and Thionville in Flanders, Hainault and Luxemburg; as well as Marienburg and Philippeville, thus strengthening the defence of Paris by a line of northern fortresses. At the same time, she temporarily (1659–61) withheld the duchy of Bar from the Duke of Lorraine, while restoring Lorraine.

32, 53 To the expansion of Sweden there were certain natural opponents—Russia, the German Orders, Poland, and Denmark. Her first advance was at the expense of the military Orders. In 1515, the two Orders, united since 1237, separated. A Brandenburg prince became Grand Master of the Prussian lands, and secularised his possessions as the duchy of Prussia in 1525, but remained the vassal of Poland. In 1558–61, the
20 Order of the Sword collapsed. In the scramble for its dominions, Poland obtained Livonia—northern Livonia at once, southern Livonia in 1582, after a struggle with Russia, which was seeking an outlet on the Baltic. Courland and Semigallia became a hereditary duchy in the Grand Master's hands, who did homage for them to the Polish King. Denmark got Dago and Ösel, her last conquests in the eastern Baltic, while Sweden's share was a large part of Esthonia—an acquisition which moved her frontiers forward south of the Gulf of Finland. This was the beginning of Sweden's new advance round the Baltic, and her first

acquisition since the establishment of her independence. It involved her at once in long wars with the rival Powers of Russia and Poland, in the course of which her empire on the Baltic was much extended.

The struggle with Russia was the first to be brought to a successful conclusion. At the Peace of Teusin, 1595, Russia recognised Sweden's right to Esthonia and her new conquest Narva, while Sweden retroceded Kexholm, the easternmost province of Finland, to Russia, and thus determined the boundaries of Finland, hitherto uncertain. Sweden, Norway, and Russia had claims on Finmark, and Russia now ceded to Sweden her part of Finmark, which lay between the Varanger and Malanger Fjords. A second struggle, in which Sweden captured Novgorod the Great, was terminated by the Peace of Stolbova, 1617. Sweden restored Novgorod, but received Kexholm, and Ingria between the mouths of the Narova and the Neva, which included Nöteborg, the key of Finland. Russia renounced her claims on Esthonia and Livonia. This gave Sweden a strong natural frontier against a powerful neighbour, and proved to be her furthest advance to the east; at the same time, it shut out Russia from her only access to the Baltic, Ingria—her only outlet indeed to an ice-free sea. It was an unstable settlement which placed a nation of one million as a barrier against another thirty times as large. The Peace of Kardis, in 1661, substantially reestablished the settlement of Stolbova; but a more definite demarcation was made of the frontier between Finland and Russia in the south.

The other enemy in these parts was Poland. It was not certain in the sixteenth century whether Sweden or Poland had the greater future. Poland had been steadily rising in importance. The acquisition of Livonia and of suzerainty over Courland meant a considerable increase of power and prestige. With Courland and East Prussia as dependencies, Livonia, Samogitia, and West Prussia in her hands, Poland had command of the whole south-eastern Baltic. Meantime, she had been strengthened by complete union with Lithuania in 1569. At the height of her power, she had embarked on a struggle with Sweden for the possession of the Baltic littoral, as well as for dynastic and religious ends. The Truce of Altmark, in 1629, allowed Sweden to retain possession of Livonia, which she had conquered, of part of the delta of the Vistula, Pillau, and Memel in East Prussia, with the right to levy tolls at Pillau, Memel, Danzig, and Labiau. Sweden was thus in possession of the principal places in both Ducal and Polish Prussia. By the Treaty of Stuhmsdorf, 1635, Sweden gave up the places which she held in Prussia, but retained Livonia. Poland proved henceforth able to protect her possessions, and the great settlement of the north made at the Peace of Oliva, in 1660, brought no further change, save that the Polish Vasa renounced their claim to the Swedish throne. Before this check, Sweden, by her intervention in Germany during the Thirty Years' War, made a great advance to the south. At the Peace of Westphalia she received a "satisfaction"

in northern Germany which gave her an indisputable preeminence on the Baltic. She had asked for Silesia, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, Bremen, and Verden. Pomerania she wanted most as a security for her Baltic power. In the end she obtained Western Pomerania with the Isle of Rügen, the mouth of the Oder, Stettin, and the islands of Usedom and Wollin. Instead of Mecklenburg, she received the port of Wismar, Neukloster, and the Isle of Poel. In addition she received the archbishopric of Bremen and the bishopric of Verden to be held as secular duchies. These possessions were small and scattered; but they gave Sweden the control of the three principal rivers of northern Germany, the Oder, the Elbe, and the Weser; they planted her on the North Sea as well as on the Baltic, and made her a member of the German Empire.

Throughout these struggles, Sweden's old partner Denmark had been surely, if intermittently, hostile. Against Denmark, Sweden fought for the recognition of her independence; for a natural frontier in the Scandinavian peninsula as against Norway in the west and Denmark herself on the south, and for dominion on the eastern Baltic, as well as
17 for commercial freedom. At the dissolution of the Union, Denmark held the southern provinces, which had been Swedish before the Union, though Danish during it, and the wealthy island of Gothland, and she had added Dago and Ösel off the eastern Baltic coast, a menace to Sweden's new acquisitions in Esthonia, while Norway retained Bohus and the provinces of Herjedalen and Jemteland. Except that at the Peace of Knäred, 1613, Sweden ceded to Norway her claims on Finmark, this position remained unchanged until the War of 1643. The Peace of Brömsebro, 1645, which ended that War, gave to Sweden Dago, Ösel, and Gothland, thus expelling the Danes from the eastern Baltic, the two Norwegian provinces of Jemteland and Herjedalen, which gave Sweden a natural frontier, the great Kiolen range, against Norway, and Halland, pawned for thirty years, as well as freedom from the Sound tolls for all her dominions. Coupled with the Swedish successes in Germany, this Peace changed the balance of power in Scandinavia. Sweden became far stronger than Denmark, and the Baltic practically passed under her control. The great Baltic ports, except those of Prussia surrendered in 1635, and a large part of the Baltic coast were in her hands. It was the beginning also of Denmark's downfall—the first of a long series of treaties which pared away the Danish dominions. Thirteen years later, the Peace of Roeskilde, 1658, inflicted still more crushing losses on Denmark. She surrendered the three provinces Halland, Bleking and Skaane, with the island of Bornholm, while Norway
54 gave up Bohus and Trondhjem. The Danish King also renounced his sovereignty over the dominions of the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp. By this Peace, Sweden expelled Denmark from the Scandinavian peninsula and gained a natural frontier to the south; she cut Norway in two and

reached the North Sea in this quarter, and she established the Duke of Gottorp as a sovereign prince within the Danish kingdom. Not all of these acquisitions were to be retained. Another war and another peace, the Peace of Copenhagen, concluded in 1660, somewhat redressed the balance of power. Sweden restored Bornholm to Denmark and Trondhjem to Norway. She retained her natural frontiers; but permitted Norway to exist again. By the three great Treaties of Copenhagen (1660), Oliva (1660), and Kardis (1661), in which Sweden came to terms with her enemies, Denmark, Poland, and Russia, a temporary equilibrium was established on the Baltic. The limits of Swedish expansion had been reached. She could hold Livonia against Poland, but could not conquer Prussia; could gain her natural frontiers in the Scandinavian peninsula, but could not hold territory which, like Trondhjem, lay beyond them; could expel Denmark from the eastern Baltic, but could not annex her entire. The empire which she had built up was, in structure, the strangest of European States. It consisted of a long seaboard with but little inland ground—an aggregation of commercial rights and commercial stations without natural unity, conquered and held together by force of arms. Between its scattered parts the Baltic formed a bond of union. All the Baltic islands were Swedish save Bornholm, and the estuaries of all the great rivers, except the Niemen and the Vistula, were in Swedish territory. Stockholm was its centre and capital, and Riga its second capital. Of this circle of possessions Sweden proper formed a core strong and united, which, in the course of the long struggle for a wider dominion, had gained natural boundaries and national unity; so that, even if the external possessions were lost—and they had for the most part no unity of race or geography with Sweden or with each other, and strong foes in the rising Powers of Russia and Prussia—the heart of the empire might be regarded as sound.

Sweden and France had grown largely at the expense of Germany. While they were expanding the German Empire was weakening. The disintegration of Germany and the growth of the power of the Princes is a feature of the period only less important than the rise of France and Sweden. The great Peace of 1648 recognised the right of the Princes to form political alliances with foreign Powers, provided they were not directed against Empire or Emperor, and thus virtually assured complete independence to the three hundred odd States which made up the Empire. The enlargement of the powers of the Princes and the contraction of those of the Emperor finally handed over the destiny of Germany to the Princes. Among those Princes, some made substantial gains as a result of the Thirty Years' War. The method of aggrandisement was, in most cases, the secularisation of ecclesiastical territory, the Peace thus marking a further stage in the process by which ecclesiastical has given way to secular rule. Brandenburg, which had already secularised the sees of Brandenburg, Havelberg,

and Cammin (the last of these in Pomerania, which duchy had fallen by inheritance to Brandenburg in 1637, though Western Pomerania and part of Eastern had to be surrendered to Sweden), now obtained Halberstadt, Minden, and Magdeburg, the last-named to come in on the death of the reigning Administrator, which happened in 1680. Brandenburg thus made very substantial gains by the Peace and rose into the front rank amongst the principalities of Germany. In return for the sacrifice of Wismar and Neukloster to Sweden, Schwerin and Ratzeburg were returned to Mecklenburg-Schwerin, which ceded Mirow and Nemerow to Mecklenburg-Güstrow. Brunswick-Lüneburg, which coveted Hildesheim, Minden, and Osnabrück, received only the abbey of Walkenried and the right of alternate appointment to the see of Osnabrück. Hesse-Cassel got the abbey of Hersfeld. Bavaria obtained the fifth electorship, which the Elector Palatine had forfeited, and the Upper Palatinate, including the county of Cham. The descendants of the ejected Elector Palatine were restored to the Rhenish Palatinate, and obtained a newly created eighth electorship. Saxony kept Upper and Lower Lusatia, which had been assigned to her as the price of peace in 1635. The independence of Switzerland was formally recognised, and the connexion of the United Netherlands with the Empire was allowed to lapse.

41 The Peace of Westphalia constituted a great European settlement,
which rested on the fact that France and Sweden had taken the
predominant influence in Europe that had belonged for so long a
time to the two branches of the Habsburgs. The character of Germany
was changed, and her relation to the political system of Europe. Her
loose polity was still more loosened, and the way was opened for the
growth of the minor States. At the same time, new Powers were
introduced into her political life. Within Germany, one of the most con-
60 spicuous results was the decline of Austrian power. Austria surrendered
Elsass and Breisach to France, and Lusatia to Saxony. She consolidated
her power by religious persecution and concentrated it by the sacrifice
of distant possessions, still retaining a compact mass of territory in
55 south-eastern Europe. Of the changes amongst the minor Powers, the
advance of Brandenburg is the most striking. In 1618, Brandenburg had
added East Prussia, and the acquisitions of 1648 made her a great State,
supreme in northern Germany as Austria was in southern. Her dominion
stretched over scattered territories from the duchy of Prussia to the
Rhine. Her natural tendency must be to seek expansion by uniting
and linking up these territories. For the time, she was deprived of
great maritime opportunities. But she had become a foe of Sweden
53 on the Baltic, and a rival of Austria in Germany. In north-eastern
Europe the greatest change was the rise of Sweden. Her gains from
Russia, Poland, Denmark, and Germany had given her a position on
the Baltic which had transformed that sea almost into a Swedish lake.

Denmark had sunk from her former preeminence. She had lost parts of Norway to Sweden; but in 1648 she still overlapped into the Scanian peninsula, though she was evidently on the down grade. In Germany she had lost no territory, but she had forfeited prestige and position. Russia was passing through a period of trouble and depression. Her westward movement was temporarily stayed by the rise of Sweden, who had closed her only outlet to the Baltic; while, in the incessant struggle on her western frontier, she had been temporarily worsted, and Poland had regained Smolensk and Chernigoff, in 1618. Poland was still great. She was the feudal superior of Prussia, and had made gains from Russia, though her greatness was partly eclipsed by the rise of Sweden.

In western Europe the rise of France is conspicuous. The three 46
bishoprics, Bresse, Bugey, and Gex, Pinerolo, and Elsass were acquisitions that showed how strong was the power behind them. They were but a stage in the expansion of France. She was pressing into the Spanish Netherlands and the other Spanish possessions on her frontiers. In the British Isles Scotland and England were now under one Crown. But it was a period of political confusion, with Scotland and Ireland in revolt. A new State, the United Netherlands, a confederation of seven 22
revolted provinces with their conquests, had appeared on the map, free of Spain and disconnected from the Empire, and had already become a great maritime Power.

In Italy, Spain was still supreme. Her power, threatened in northern Europe, was here unshaken. Possessed of Naples, Sicily, Sardinia, and the Stato degli Presidi, she dominated Italy. The Papal States were stronger than ever. Ferrara and Urbino, two semi-independent duchies, had been absorbed by them—Ferrara in 1598, Urbino in 1631. Venice had preserved her territory intact through a difficult period. Savoy had acquired a part of Montferrat, 1631, but had lost Pinerolo to the French, and was thus under French supervision. Mantua and Montferrat remained under the Gonzaga; Modena under the Este; Tuscany under the Medici; Parma and Piacenza under the Farnese. In the Iberian peninsula, Portugal, which had been annexed by Spain in 1580, had freed herself again in 1640. Spain, though she had not yet made the surrenders of 1659, was obviously sinking, as a result of military disaster and the temporary depression of her allies, the Austrian Habsburgs. In south-eastern Europe the situation had undergone little change for three-quarters of a century. The Ottoman empire had not yet reached the limits of its expansion either in Hungary or on the eastern Mediterranean; but internal weakness had for a time restrained its activities. Since the loss of Cyprus the Venetian empire had been almost confined to the Adriatic. Only Crete and two small Aegean islands remained of her more eastern possessions.

B. GREATER EUROPE.

The change in the balance of power in Europe was accompanied by a transference of power in the colonial world. New nations entered into the competition of colonisation, and either ousted, or established themselves by the side of, the old. The Dutch, English, and French became colonial Powers. The Portuguese empire fell to pieces in the East. In the West Spain lost some of her outlying possessions, and found her exclusive claims challenged. At the same time, Russia entered upon the great process which added half a continent to her empire.

43 Before the end of the sixteenth century, both Dutch and English were sending out trading fleets to the East. In 1600 the English East India Company began its great career, in 1602 the Dutch. The operations of both companies were at first extended over a wide area. The English established a factory at Bantam in Java, in 1602; their first factory in India at Surat, in 1612; a factory in Japan at Firando, in 1613; and, by 1616, they also had factories at Ahmadabad, Burhanpur, Ajmir, and Agra in the west of India, and Masulipatam and Petapoli on the east coast. The Dutch came to the Coromandel and Malabar coasts of India, to Ceylon and Java, rapidly spread their activities through the eastern archipelago, and northwards to China and Japan. They took Amboina from the Portuguese in 1605, discovered the northern coast of Australia 1606, and established themselves in the Banda Islands 1609, in which year also they set up a factory at Firando in Japan, and, by 1615, they had a firm grip of the Moluccas. In Java they went first to Jacatra; but, in 1619, they established themselves at Batavia, which became the capital of the Dutch East Indies in place of Amboina. The Danish East India Company, established in 1614, also competed in the eastern trade, and in 1616 planted a fort at Tranquebar on the Coromandel coast and another in Bengal. Much of what was done at first was tentative; but, in time, the several Powers began to get more definite spheres of activity, and to find those positions which became the lasting seats of their power. The Dutch drove the English out of the eastern archipelago—from Pulo Run and Great Banda in 1620, from Bantam in 1621, and from Amboina in 1623; and, though the English returned to Bantam in 1628, the eastern islands passed definitely into Dutch possession. The English concentrated on India. They made Surat their chief post in 1638, built Fort St George on the site now occupied by Madras in 1639, and gained permanent positions at Masulipatam on the east coast in 1632, and on the Hooghly river,
64 1640. The Island of Bombay came into English possession as a part of the dowry of Catharine of Braganza. It was promised in 1661, though not actually handed over till 1665, and in 1668 was transferred by Charles II to the Company. Madras was made a presidency in 1653,

and Bombay in 1687, in lieu of Surat. The Dutch proceeded to extend their possessions by conquest from the Portuguese. In 1638, they conquered some of the Portuguese stations in Ceylon—Negumbo, Pointe de Galle, and Trincomalee; in 1641, Malacca; in 1642, Formosa, where they established Fort Zelandia, in the south-west corner of the island; in 1653, Cannanor; in 1656, Calicut and Colombo; in 1658, Jaffnapatam and Negapatam; in 1661, Quilon; in 1662, Cranganor and Cochin. In 1661, the Portuguese recognised their losses. By 1664, the Dutch had posts in Bengal, Gujerat and on the Coromandel and Malabar coasts. Meanwhile, from Batavia they conquered Java and Celebes, they established factories in Pegu, at Ajudia in Siam, and in Sumatra and Borneo,
while, in 1651, they occupied Table Bay in South Africa, to provide a 65
halting-place on the road to the East. They divided their eastern dominions into the six governments of Java, Amboina, Ternate, Ceylon, Macassar, and the Cape of Good Hope, and made Batavia their capital. Thus the great Portuguese empire of the East, with its numerous exposed points, was easily broken up by the intrusion of the Teutonic Powers.

In the New World, there was in this period a great extension of 66
colonial activity, without much transference of colonial power. The incoming Powers, which included France, found an open field for their activity, and thus established themselves by the side of Spain and Portugal, founding important colonies, but not overthrowing those of the Latin Powers. In 1583 the English occupied Newfoundland, their first colony. In 1606 the London and Plymouth Companies were chartered, and the territory of Virginia, where the English had made at the end of the sixteenth century ineffectual attempts at colonisation, was divided between them. Jamestown in Virginia was founded in
1608, and the Bermudas were occupied in 1609–12. The settlements in 68
New England began with New Plymouth 1620, those in New Hampshire 1623 and 1627, at Massachusetts Bay 1628–9, in Maine 1632, in Connecticut 1635, at New Haven 1638, in Long Island 1640, and in Rhode Island 1643. In the south, the colonisation of Maryland was begun in 1634, of Carolina in 1663. Maine was united to Massachusetts in 1652 and 1668. New Jersey was formed in 1665, and Connecticut and New Haven united in the same year. In 1664, the Dutch colonies on the Hudson and Delaware, called the New Netherlands, which included the Swedish colonies on the Delaware conquered by the Dutch in 1655, were conquered by the British and confirmed to them by the Peace of Breda 1667. The Dutch received Surinam in exchange. This transference was confirmed in the Peace of Westminster 1674. It was of the greatest importance, as giving the British continuous possession of the Atlantic coast from the French settlements in Acadia to the Spanish in Florida. In the West Indies the British occupied Barbados and part of St Kitts in 1625, Nevis in 1628, Montserrat and Antigua in 1632, Surinam in 1640, Anguilla in 1650, Barbuda in 1661–2, New Providence

and Eleuthera Island in the Bahamas in 1666, the Virgin Islands in 1672, and conquered Jamaica in 1655.

The French followed the British to North America. In 1605 they made a settlement at Port Royal in Acadia; in 1608 they founded Quebec. Quebec was captured by the British in 1629; but, together with Acadia, was restored by the Peace of St Germain in 1632. The Peace of Breda, 1667, confirmed Acadia to France, and, in 1670, Maine east of the Penobscot was recognised as French. In the West Indies, the French occupied part of St Kitts in 1625, part of St Martin, Martinique, and Guadaloupe in 1636, part of Santo Domingo in 1664, and they made a settlement in Guiana, of which Cayenne became the capital, in 1624.

The Dutch West India Company was founded in 1621. From 1623, they established settlements in the New Netherlands, where they conquered the Swedish colonies on the Delaware 1655; but they lost all their possessions here to England in 1667, gaining in exchange Surinam. They made considerable conquests in Brazil, where for thirty years, from 1624 to 1654, they held a large part of the Portuguese possessions. In the West Indies, they established factories on a few small islands, St Eustatius in 1632, Curaçoa in 1634, Saba in 1640, and St Martin, which they divided with the French, in 1649.

65 All four of these Powers came also to Africa, to share in the slave-trade. In 1618, the English chartered their first West African Company, which planted one settlement on the Gambia, and another at Cormentine on the Gold Coast; while the French West African Company, formed in 1626, established a fort on the Senegal. The Dutch acquired Gorée, an island off Cape Verde, in 1617, and in 1624 built Fort Nassau at Mouree. Once established on the Gold Coast, they were not long in expelling the Portuguese. They captured Elmina in 1637, and Axim in 1642. In 1641, they proceeded further south and took Sao Paulo de Loanda, which the Portuguese had founded in 1578, and from which they had subjugated Congo and Angola. But the Portuguese recovered their position in Angola and succeeded in extending their influence further. Danish enterprise in Africa, also, dates from the middle of the seventeenth century. The Danes built forts near Accra at Christiansborg and Frederiksborg; but they soon succumbed to the English in the latter place. The English lost Cormentine in 1667 after the naval wars with the Dutch, but they gained Cape Coast Castle, which became their most important possession on the Gold Coast. From this centre they extended their possessions considerably, building forts at Accra, Dixcove, and elsewhere on the Gold Coast, as well as at Whydah on the Slave Coast. Of greater importance than the struggle for the Gold Coast was the Dutch occupation of Table Bay in 1651, followed in 1653 by the purchase from the Hottentots of a strip of land, which secured for them the peninsula of

the Cape of Good Hope. St Helena, which they had acquired in 1645 as a place of call on the way east, they now abandoned, and in 1655 it was occupied by the English.

Thus, in the third quarter of the seventeenth century, the Portuguese 43
were being driven out of the East, where the Dutch had taken their place, almost alone in the Far East, and in conjunction with the English in India. They still had their stations in East and West Africa, but not on the Gold Coast, which the English and the Dutch divided; while, further to the north on the western coast, the French and English were predominant.

In the Western world, the intrusion of the new colonising nations did **106**
not menace the extensive land dominions of the Latin Powers. The Dutch conquest of some of the finest provinces of Brazil, including Pernambuco and Bahia, lasted for only thirty years—from 1624 to 1654. Spain, indeed, lost ground in the West Indies; but the establishment of the English on the Atlantic coast of the northern continent and of the French on the St Lawrence and in Acadia was an extension of European colonisation and involved no transfers of territory from the older colonising nations. These latter had, in the meantime, extended and consolidated their rule. The Portuguese, whose settlements were at first exclusively on the coast, gradually penetrated the vast interior and acquired a claim to the greater part of the Amazon basin. At the Peace of Utrecht, the French, who had established themselves in Guiana, recognised Portuguese sovereignty over both banks of the great river. At the other extremity of their dominion, their frontier with the Spanish possessions on the La Plata was in continual dispute. The dominion of Spain, which virtually reached its limits in the sixteenth century, extended through a great variety of countries, from California in the north, over Mexico and Central America, down the western half of South America to the frontiers of Patagonia and over the basin of the La Plata on the other side of the Andes. Outside of the two continents, it included the Philippines and the larger West India islands. It was divided into the two viceroyalties of New Spain and Peru, and a number of governments more or less dependent on the viceroyalties. The provinces nominally subject to New Spain were the Philippines, Guatemala, Yucatan, and New Biscay, and the two, or sometimes three, West India governments. Those subject to the Viceroy of Peru were Chile, Quito, New Granada, Terra Firma, Paraguay, Tucuman, and Buenos Aires. From 1718 to 1722, and permanently in 1739, a third viceroyalty of New Granada was established, which included New Granada and Quito. In 1731 Venezuela was made a separate government under a Captain-General, and in 1776 Buenos Aires was raised to the position of a viceroyalty. To it were added the province of Cuyo, from the captaincy-general of Chile, and, from Lima, the four provinces of Upper Peru as well as Paraguay, Cordoba, and Tucuman; so that this

fourth viceroyalty included all the Spanish territory east of the Andes, from Lake Titicaca to Patagonia.

136 While the Western Powers were struggling for colonial dominion beyond the seas, the geographical position of Russia enabled her to advance without rivalry or difficulty. The Russian colonial empire was a natural expansion of European Russia across the forests and plains of northern Asia to the Pacific, and across the steppes of Central Asia to the mountain barriers of India. It never required or rested on maritime power. It was initiated by the military spirit of the Cossacks, and maintained by the expansive and nomadic tendencies of a great population. Russia discovered her new world somewhat later than the Western Powers. In 1581, the Cossacks took Sibir the capital of the Tartar Khanate of Siberia, thus carrying Russia's territory beyond the Urals and founding her Asiatic dominion. By 1630, the Cossacks had reached the Lena; in 1700, they conquered Kamschatka—so easy was Russia's advance to the Pacific. Her southward movement towards China paused at the Amur, from 1683 till 1846. Thus Russia took a place, which her geographical position assigned to her, as a great Asiatic Power. With the exception of the slopes of the Urals, too gentle to be formidable, nature had planted no barrier between the Pacific and the heart of eastern Europe; and, in the circumstances, this vast area passed easily into a single State.

SECTION IV.

THE FORMATION OF THE GREAT POWERS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

A. EUROPE.

Of the tendencies of which we have spoken as operating in the early 63
seventeenth century, the expansion of France continued until it suffered a check in the great settlement of Utrecht 1713–5, which rested on a balance of power between France and Austria; the expansion of Sweden ceased, and the dissolution of her empire, to the advantage of Brandenburg and Russia, quickly began; the disintegration of Germany continued, and among the chief rising States appeared a strong kingdom of Prussia, which contested with Austria the hegemony of Germany; in north and south, Russia advanced westwards at the expense of Sweden and the Ottoman empire; Austria, instead of declining, took the place of Spain in the Netherlands and Italy, and advanced into south-eastern Europe; Poland was swallowed up by Austria, Russia, and Prussia; in the colonial world, Britain distanced all her rivals, after a long duel with France, in particular, for India and North America. So, in the eighteenth century there was worked out a balance of power between Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and France. Much took shape in this period which has remained to the present day. Sweden was forced almost into her natural limits. Poland was destroyed. The Ottoman empire was driven back. Russia expanded, and Prussia was formed.

We may consider first the expansion of France. The great advance 46
which she had made into the Spanish Netherlands in 1659 was continued. By the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1668, she made considerable gains which included Douai, Lille, and Courtrai. By the Treaty of Nymegen, 1678, she restored some towns and annexed others. Her frontier receded, but, on the other hand, it was strengthened, for she gained the remaining Spanish towns in Artois, and made advances in Hainault. The new places which she acquired included Valenciennes, Condé, Cambray, St Omer, and Maubeuge. In addition, she received Franche Comté, and Freiburg in the Breisgau, but gave up the right of garrisoning Philippsburg. By the "reunions" which followed she

strengthened her hold of Alsace, and annexed Strassburg and Kehl—annexations which were recognised by the Treaty of Ratisbon, in 1684. The Treaty of Ryswyk, in 1697, left her frontier as in 1678; but she gave up Kehl and Freiburg, retaining Strassburg. The Treaty of Utrecht, 1713, made a lasting settlement of the north-eastern frontier. France gave up much; but she retained a line of towns stretching from St Omer, through Lille, Condé, and Maubeuge, to Marienburg, which represented the substantial result of years of ambition and struggle. By the Treaty of Rastatt with the Empire, 1714, she received Landau also. By treaty with Savoy, in 1713, she rectified her south-east frontier, surrendering to Savoy a tongue of territory on the Italian side of the Alps, and receiving in exchange the valley of Barcelonette on her own side. In the same year, the little principality of Orange was annexed.

79 The changes in the eighteenth century subsequent to those of Utrecht were few. In 1736 Lorraine was ceded to France, to be annexed on the death of the reigning Duke Stanislas, which happened in 1766. Two years later (in 1768) Corsica, the last acquisition before the Revolution, and the only large detached possession in Europe, was gained. The steady advance since the days of Louis XI had given France a strong north-eastern frontier, had brought her on the middle east to the Rhine, on the south-east corner to the Alps, and in the south to the Pyrenees. But she was still separated from her natural boundary, the Alps, in the south by the possessions of the King of Sardinia, Savoy and Nice; and, between Franche Comté and Alsace, the county of Montbéliard, a possession of Würtemberg, made a breach in the continuity of her territory. In addition, there were various enclaves of foreign States within her territory, the most important of which were the principality of Avignon and the county of Venaissin, papal territory on the Rhone, the free city of Mülhausen, and some small possessions of various German States over which France was merely suzerain in Alsace, and some more extensive districts such as Nassau-Saarbrücken, Nassau-Saarwerden, and the county of Salm, over which France was not even suzerain, in Lorraine. On the other hand, she held Landau within the borders of the Empire, and Philippeville and Marienburg in the Low Countries.

54 While France advanced, her old ally Sweden held her own with difficulty, and, within a few years of the check which was placed on the expansion of France by the War of the Spanish Succession, a large part of Sweden's empire was wrested from her in the Northern War. At the
59 Peace of Stockholm, 1719, Sweden handed over Bremen and Verden to Hanover, and lost her position on the North Sea; and in 1720, at a second Peace of Stockholm, she surrendered to Prussia Western Pomerania as far as the river Peene, with the islands of Usedom and Wollin. Stettin was thus lost; but Stralsund, Wolgast, and Rügen were retained. Thus, the Elbe and the Oder became again German rivers. A more crush-
52 ing blow followed in 1721, when, at the Peace of Nystad, Russia took

Livonia, Esthonia, and the adjacent islands, and parts of the Finnish provinces of Kexholm and Viborg. Nor was this the end. In 1743, by 61
the Peace of Åbo, Russia made another advance into Finland, and gained the territory lying east of the river Kymmene. The remainder of her ultra-Scandinavian empire Sweden retained into the nineteenth century. Her losses were not surprising, for her empire lacked a sufficient basis of natural strength, and stronger forces than arms transferred her outlying provinces to the rising Powers of the eighteenth century.

In the course of French expansion there arose the possibility of a 51
change which might have overturned the whole political system of Europe and reared again an empire stronger than the undivided Habsburg Power. The question of the Spanish Succession appeared on the political horizon as early as 1668, when the Emperor and Louis XIV made a secret and provisional arrangement for the partition of the Spanish possessions, by which France was to take the Spanish Netherlands, Franche Comté, Naples, and Sicily, and the Emperor Spain and Spanish America. When the question became more urgent, the maritime Powers insisted on a voice in so immense a territorial rearrangement. By the Partition Treaty of 1698, to which they gave their consent, France was to have Naples and Sicily, the Archduke Charles of Austria Milan, and a Bavarian Prince the remainder. On the death of the Bavarian Prince, a second agreement gave to Archduke Charles the mass of the inheritance, to France the two Sicilies and Lorraine, to the Duke of Lorraine Milan. In the end, the whole question was submitted to the arbitrament of war, and a settlement was finally made in a series of treaties, 1713–5, between the various Powers which had taken part in the war. The Spanish empire was dismembered. Spain retained her individuality and her colonies; but she was cut off from her old connexion with the rest of Europe by the loss of her possessions in Italy and the Netherlands as well as of two positions in the Mediterranean. A check was placed on the expansion of France. She gained no share of the Spanish empire—none of the Spanish provinces in the Netherlands and Italy for which she had waited so long, none of the Spanish colonies, nor the prospect of the union of the two kingdoms. Her frontiers with the Netherlands were readjusted without being weakened. She obtained Landau on the left bank of the Rhine, and she restored her conquests on the right bank—Alt-Breisach, Kehl, and Freiburg. England greatly increased her colonial power, and in the Mediterranean gained two important strategic positions, Minorca and Gibraltar. Her colonial gains are enumerated in another connexion. Austria received Naples and Milan in Italy, and the Spanish Netherlands, and thus became the first line of resistance to French expansion in this important quarter. Holland was given security against French ambition, inasmuch as Austria was placed between her and France; and she obtained a strong barrier of towns, commanding all the rivers from the Meuse to the sea, which she

was to garrison, in the Austrian Netherlands. Savoy received Sicily, Montferrat, and a part of the Milanese, and made some rearrangements of her Alpine frontier with France by mutual cession, which removed
59 France from Piedmont. Prussia added to her west German possessions the bulk of Upper or Spanish Gelders, and her claim to Neufchâtel was recognised. Thus, at Utrecht, a further stage was reached in the division of those middle lands lying on the western frontiers of Germany for the sake of which so many of the wars of modern times had been waged. These extensive changes, coupled with the expansion of Austria at the expense of the Ottoman empire, and of Russia and Prussia at the expense of Sweden, gave a new form to the political system of Europe, which, with some modifications, lasted until the French Revolution.

62 In 1648 was consummated the disintegration of Germany. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries the Princes had successfully resisted the forces that made for German unity. In 1559, they established their independence of Imperial authority in religion, and, when, in 1648, they secured virtual independence in foreign politics, they reduced the Empire
60 to a political shell, enclosing not a single State but a system of States. Of these States Austria remained the chief. Though the Empire was of diminishing value to her, and in Germany she no longer remained without a rival, her territorial acquisitions were so much more extensive than her losses as to give her a European position counterbalancing that
40 of France. At the Peace of Westphalia she suffered heavily in ceding Lusatia to Saxony, and Elsass to France, and during the remainder of the seventeenth century she lost a little more ground to France in southern Germany. In 1740 she further lost Silesia to Prussia. On the
48 other hand, she drove the Turk out of Hungary and advanced into the Balkan peninsula, took Spain's place in the Netherlands and Italy, and
58 shared in the partition of Poland. The surest direction of her expansion appeared to be eastwards. The strength of her dominion lay in the great mass of territory which she possessed in south-eastern Europe. Here, she consolidated as well as extended her dominion, always cherishing the hope of acquiring Bavaria, which her dominions half encircled, by annexation or exchange. A part of Bavaria, the Innviertel, she actually gained by the Peace of Teschen, 1777, as a settlement of her claim on the succession, and only the intervention of Frederick the Great in 1785 prevented the exchange of the Netherlands for the remainder. Nor was the idea definitively abandoned until 1813.

48, 60 Austrian expansion during this period began in the south-east. After the Peace of Vasvar, 1664, she surrendered no more territory to the Ottoman. The tide turned, and in 1699, at the Peace of Carlowitz, she recovered Transylvania and Hungary, with the exception of the Banat of Temesvar between the Theiss and the Maros, and parts of Slavonia and Croatia. In 1718, at the Peace of Passarowitz, she made another great advance, recovering the remainder of Hungary and Slavonia, and

gaining parts of Bosnia and Servia, with Belgrade, and Lesser Wallachia. A corner only of Croatia remained to the Turk. But not all this could be retained, and, by the Peace of Belgrade, in 1739, Austria restored her acquisitions in Servia, Bosnia, and Wallachia, including Belgrade and Orsova. Along the frontier thus fixed, a position of equilibrium between the two empires was reached which held good for nearly a century and a half, except that, in 1777, Austria obtained the Bukowina, important for its strategic position connecting Galicia and Transylvania, and in 1789 captured Belgrade, to lose it again in 1791, and in 1790 Orsova. As she **58**
advanced south of Hungary, so also did she north. By taking a hand in the partition of Poland she gained temporarily a great mass of territory with which to flank her dominions on the north. In 1770, she appropriated the part of the county of Zips which had been pawned to Poland in 1412. In 1772, she took most of Red Russia and parts of Podolia and Little Poland; in 1795, Cracow, southern Masovia, a part of Podlachia and the remainder of Little Poland. Thus the mass of Austrian possessions in south-eastern Europe underwent considerable expansion in the eighteenth century. Inorganic collection of territories as it was, it was not at this time sundered by race divisions and jealousies.

The part of the Spanish empire which Austria received in 1713–5 extended her dominions greatly, without much increasing her strength. Rich and fertile though the Netherlands were, they were of little value to Austria. They had not Hungary's geographical proximity to the hereditary dominions. Their long subjection to Spain had destroyed their German connexion, and the tie with Austria proved very slight. Austria had little interest in this distant, burdensome, and unnatural possession, which increased the disunion of her Empire, and added to the frontiers she was charged to defend one peculiarly defenceless.

Sardinia, Milan, and Naples, also acquired in 1714, were not less **51, 63**
difficult to absorb into the Austrian Empire. There was little intercourse between the Italian and the German possessions of Austria, and her position in Italy only excited the hostility of Spain. Nor did Austria retain possession of all these provinces. In 1718 she made an exchange with Savoy of Sardinia for Sicily, and in 1735, by the Peace of Vienna, another exchange, with the Bourbon Don Carlos, of the Two Sicilies and the Tuscan *Presidi* for the duchy of Parma which had passed to Don Carlos in 1731. Austria after these transactions was confined to northern Italy. The losses which Milan suffered to Savoy have been already indicated. On the other hand, Mantua fell to the Emperor by forfeit in 1708, and Duke Francis of Lorraine, who became the Emperor Francis I, received the grand duchy of Tuscany on the extinction of the Medici, 1737; and, in 1771, Modena, which had in the process of time reached the sea between Lucca and Genoa, also came in.

In the course of the eighteenth century, there arose in northern **55, 59**
Germany a Power that disputed with Austria hegemony in the Empire,

and that in the nineteenth century expelled her from the German world in which she had for so many centuries played the first part Prussian expansion has this peculiarity, that it did not proceed from a single centre, but from three clearly marked areas which were gradually linked together. These areas were the Mark of Brandenburg, the duchy of Prussia, and the Prussian possessions on the Rhine. They were distinct in history, language, races, and institutions, and had each a separate course of development. Prussia did not grow, like France or England, by consolidation and acquisition along definite lines and according to a preconceived plan. It was a collection of dominions, formed by war and chance, and consolidated by the arts of government. An open, poor and arid country, small, unprotected by natural defences, less in size than Scotland, Brandenburg became stronger than France and the foremost military Power in Europe.

The early growth of Brandenburg has already been related. In 1524 Ruppin was annexed, and in 1537 an agreement was made with the Duke of Wohlau, Liegnitz, and Brieg securing to Brandenburg the succession to these provinces. The Reformation made possible the secularisation of the three Brandenburg bishoprics of Brandenburg, Lebus (1553), and Havelberg (1555). In 1571, Beeskow and Storkow were gained. Meanwhile, Ansbach had bought the principality of Jägerndorf, Beuthen, and Oderberg in Silesia in 1523, acquired a reversionary interest in Oppeln in 1528, and inherited Baireuth on the extinction of the ruling line in 1557. In 1603, these Franconian possessions came in to Brandenburg; but in the same year they were granted out again—Ansbach and Baireuth to younger brothers, Jägerndorf, which was lost to the Hohenzollerns in the Thirty Years' War (1623), to another member of the family. In 1609, Brandenburg gained a footing on the Rhine. The Elector laid claim to the Cleve-Jülich inheritance, and, in 1609, accepted joint rulership of the disputed territories with the other claimants. The Treaty of Xanten, however, in 1614 made a partition of the territories which was confirmed in 1666 and which gave to Brandenburg, finally, Cleve, Mark, Ravensberg, and Herford. In 1618, the duchy of Prussia, held by a Hohenzollern as a fief of Poland, came in to Brandenburg, and in 1657, by the Treaty of Wehlau, Poland renounced her suzerainty over the duchy, in return for the restitution of Ermeland which Brandenburg had seized in 1656. This renunciation was confirmed in the Peace of Oliva, 1660. Tauroggen and Serrey were added to the duchy in 1691. Both were given up in 1793, but Serrey was recovered in 1795.

40 The Peace of Westphalia brought large additions to Brandenburg. Pomerania, according to an agreement between Brandenburg and the Dukes of Pomerania, should have come in to Brandenburg in 1637. But Sweden was in occupation, and in 1648 Brandenburg could get only East Pomerania—and this without Stettin and a two-mile strip on

the east of the Oder, which she ceded to Sweden in 1653. Ample
compensation however was given her in the bishoprics of Cammin,
Halberstadt, and Minden, the archbishopric of Magdeburg which she
was to receive on the death of the existing Administrator, and various
other places of less importance. Later acquisitions were Lauenburg and
Bütow in Pomerania, 1657, and, by the Peace of St Germain, 1679, the
strip along the Oder, surrendered to Sweden in 1653, except Damm and
Gollnow. In 1679 Schwiebus was taken in satisfaction of the Silesian
claims, but was restored in 1694, and the claims were reasserted. The
archbishopric of Magdeburg was acquired in 1680, and Burg in 1687.

In the great wars at the beginning of the eighteenth century the
Kings of Prussia, for such the Electors of Brandenburg became in 1701,
fought to secure their possessions on the Rhine and to extend their
dominions on the Baltic. At Utrecht Prussia received Upper Gelders, 51
whence she could watch Austria in the Netherlands. This, with Mörs
and Lingen, obtained in 1702 on the extinction of the Nassau-Dillenburg
family, and Tecklenburg, obtained in 1707, went to increase
her Rhineland territories. Neufchâtel also was obtained in 1707, and
Prussia's possession of it was recognised at Utrecht and was maintained
till 1857; but it was a distant, detached possession, and never became a
centre of expansion. The Peace of Stockholm in 1720 gave Prussia 54
a part of Swedish Pomerania, including Stettin and district, the islands
of Usedom and Wollin, and Damm and Gollnow. This territory, lying
between the Oder and the Peene, secured to her control of one of the
great commercial highways of northern Germany.

The various acquisitions which the Hohenzollerns had made, while
they brought extensive territories under their rule, were so scattered
that they needed to be linked up and consolidated, if Prussia was ever to
form a strong State. To Frederick the Great the configuration of his
kingdom was intolerable. He desired Saxony, West Prussia, and Swedish
Pomerania. He gained Silesia, which he seized in 1740, and which
Austria finally yielded at the Peace of Hubertusburg in 1763, together
with Schwiebus and Glatz, though not Jägerndorf in the form in
which Prussia had claimed it; East Friesland, in 1744, which brought
Prussia to the North Sea; a part of Poland—West Prussia, Ermeland, 58
Kulmerland and the Netze district, but not Danzig and Thorn—in 1772;
and the county of Mansfeld in 1780. The Franconian possessions,
Ansbach and Baireuth, came to Prussia in 1791; and in 1793 she 58
acquired South Prussia together with Danzig—long the object of
desire—and Thorn; in 1795 New East Prussia, and New Silesia with
Serrey. These extensive acquisitions from Poland linked up the Prussian
territories and rounded them off, and, while they diminished the length of
her frontiers, added to their strength. West Prussia united East Prussia
and Brandenburg; South Prussia, Silesia and Prussia; while New East
Prussia improved the eastern frontier. The last addition brought

Prussia to her extreme eastern limits, and coincided with losses on the
84 Rhine at the Peace of Basel, of which we shall speak later. Thus was
built up, in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the strangely
shaped kingdom of Prussia, which stretched its great length across
northern Germany from the Rhine to the Memel, with outposts in the
Netherlands, Franconia, and on the Swiss frontier.

62, 40 Austria's neighbour Bavaria had greatly increased her importance in
the Thirty Years' War, and at the Peace of Westphalia had gained an
Electorate and the Upper Palatinate with the county of Cham. In
1742, the Elector of Bavaria was chosen Emperor, the one exception to
the long line of Habsburg Emperors from the time of Frederick III.
In 1777, the Bavarian territories passed to the Sulzbach line of the
Wittelsbach family, which, since 1742, had been ruling the Rhenish
Palatinate and the duchies of Jülich and Berg, acquired by the Palatinate
at the partition of the Jülich-Cleve inheritance in 1614. Both Saxony
and Austria had claims to parts of Bavaria. But the Saxon claims were
60 bought off, and, on account of the Austrian, the Habsburgs received the
Innviertel—the territory between the Inn, the Danube, the Salza, and the
Austrian frontier.

Saxony was too much weakened by partition to have the strength to
which her population and natural richness entitled her. Thuringia was
a maze of Saxon States. In 1648 the Ernestine line divided into two
main branches—Saxe-Weimar and Saxe-Gotha—which afterwards split
up into branches too many to enumerate, though Eisenach, Coburg,
Meiningen, and Hildburghausen call for mention. The electoral line,
which had received Lusatia in 1635, divided into four branches in 1656.
Of these, the minor branches died out in the first half of the eighteenth
century, and their territories were reunited to the electoral. From 1697
to 1763 the Electors were also Kings of Poland.

The Brunswick family, with their extensive, though barren, territories
and their position on Elbe and Weser, might have contended with Branden-
40 burg for the leadership of North Germany. But they gained little at the
Peace of Westphalia, except the alternate right of appointment to the
bishopric of Osnabrück, and, like Saxony, they were weakened by division.
In 1689 the Lüneburg line acquired Lauenburg, and in 1692 the ninth
electorate. In 1705 the Lüneburg and Calenberg possessions were united
in the person of the Elector George Lewis, who, in 1714, succeeded to
54 the Crown of Great Britain. Brunswick-Lüneburg, or Hanover, under
which name it is better known, acquired Bremen and Verden from
Sweden, in 1720, Bentheim, and some other smaller possessions. Like
Saxony, Hanover gained little advantage from its foreign connexion.
40 The Wolfenbüttel line received Walkenried, in 1648, and made other
small acquisitions in the seventeenth century. In 1735 its possessions
passed to the younger line of Brunswick-Bevern, which had been estab-
lished in 1666.

Concerning the less important German Houses a summary statement
may suffice. The Duke of Würtemberg was restored to his lands and
title in 1648, except to Montbéliard, which passed to another branch of
the family, to return to the main line in 1723. The Baden territories,
divided since 1536 into two branches, were united in 1771 by the Baden-
Durlach line. Of the four lines into which Hesse had been divided in
1567, one died out in 1583 and another in 1604. Over the possessions
of the latter, Hesse-Marburg, the remaining two, Hesse-Darmstadt and
Hesse-Cassel, disputed until 1648, when the partition favoured Hesse-
Cassel. In 1736 they also shared Hanau. Anhalt in 1603 divided into
four lines, ruling at Dessau, Bernburg, Zerbst, and Köthen, of which
the Zerbst line died out in 1793, when its territories were partitioned
amongst the other three. Of the two Mecklenburg lines of Schwerin 40
and Güstrow, the Schwerin line in 1648, as noted above, recovered the
bishoprics of Schwerin and Ratzeburg, transferring Nemerow and Mirow
to the Güstrow line. The former line died out in 1692, the latter in
1695. In 1701 the two lines of Schwerin and Strelitz took their places.
In 1667 the ruling line in Oldenburg, Delmenhorst, and Jever died out,
and, by an agreement of 1649, the King of Denmark and the Duke of
Holstein-Gottorp jointly succeeded to these territories. Delmenhorst
was pawned to Hanover in 1711; but the connexion of Oldenburg with
Denmark lasted for more than a century, and its termination marks a
stage in the history of Schleswig-Holstein. In 1658 the King of Den- 54
mark had been compelled to surrender his sovereignty over the Gottorp
possessions in the two duchies which left the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp
an independent Power. In 1721 the Duke surrendered to the King his
possessions in Schleswig. In 1773 the Gottorp possessions passed to
Paul III of Russia. Paul renounced to Denmark his claims in Holstein,
which was thus united again with Schleswig under Danish sovereignty,
in exchange for Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, which he ceded to the
Prince-Bishop of Lübeck. In 1777 Oldenburg and Delmenhorst were
raised to the rank of a duchy. Of the Nassau family the main Orange
line, Nassau-Dillenburg, died out in 1702. Its possessions were divided.
Parts went to Prussia, the principality of Orange on the Rhone to
France, and the remainder to the Nassau-Dietz line. In 1795 three
branches of the family remained at Idstein, Weilburg, and Usingen.
The territory under ecclesiastical rule was a good deal diminished in
northern Germany by the secularisations of the Reformation and of
1648; and the number of the Imperial cities also dwindled, fifty-one
remaining in 1789.

The expansion of Russia and her advance into western Europe is not 52
less a feature of the years between 1648 and 1795 than is the rise of
Prussia. It marks perhaps the most important change which the political
system of Europe had undergone. It added to the system a State of
immense potential strength, not divided from its European neighbours

by distinct geographical or ethnological boundaries, and, hence, ever pressing on their eastern frontiers. To understand its growth, we must retrace our steps. Russia was formed of a group of Slav principalities in the greatest plains of Europe—the valleys of the Volga, the Don, the Dnieper and the Düna, which rivers drew her to expand towards the Baltic, the Black Sea, and the Caspian. In the sixteenth century, she was cut off from all seas. Sweden and Poland cut her off from the Baltic, Poland and the Ottoman empire from the Black Sea, the Tartars from the Caspian. The natural increase of her population, their migratory habits, the search for a scientific frontier, and the desire for a civilising intercourse with other nations, impelled her to expansion seawards which her great strength enabled her to make and to sustain. Her first wars were with the Tartars; they began a great landward ad-
1 vance of Europe against Asia. When the Tartar empire broke up, there arose on its ruins the Khanates of Kazan, Astrakhan, and Crimea. In 1552, Russia annexed Kazan; in 1554, Astrakhan, which gave her command of the Volga from source to mouth and brought her to the Caspian Sea. Persian Asia was thereby thrown open to penetration by Russia, and the Volga offered a southward route. Crimea passed to the Turks,
61 and the Russian acquisition of it was postponed till the reign of Catharine. On the Dnieper, the Don, the Volga, and the Ural were Cossack communities, which protected the southern frontier of Russia and maintained, in some cases, a virtual independence till the eighteenth century. In 1577, Russia asserted her supremacy over the Don Cossacks,
136 which brought her nearer to the Black Sea. Four years later, her colonisation in northern Asia began with the conquest of Sibir, the capital of the Tartar Khanate of Siberia, whence Russia gradually spread her power eastwards to the Pacific Ocean. In the north-east the enemies of Russian expansion were Sweden and Poland-Lithuania. Lithuania, with her Russian provinces, provided another centre round which the Slav race could group itself. Nature had placed no geographical barrier to divide the two States, and between the two there was constant war, with fluctuations of frontier. As Russia tended to expand westwards, so Lithuania tended to expand eastwards; and the contact with the western world, and possession of the rich valley of the Dnieper, gave her a strength which overweighed the vaster extent of the Muscovite empire. In 1557–60 Russia conquered the greater part of Livonia from the Teutonic Knights and reached the Baltic; but Poland-Lithuania took this territory away in 1582. From 1584, many years of unrest and civil strife checked the expansion of Russia and compelled her to make sacrifices on
32 her western frontier. At the Peace of Stolbova, 1617, she surrendered to Sweden Ingria and Carelia, and to Poland by the Truce of Deulino, in 1618, and the Treaty of Polianovka, in 1634, Smolensk, Chernigoff, and Sieverski—a great slice off western Russia and the greater part of her Lithuanian conquests beyond the Dnieper. Not till the Peace of

Andrusovo in 1667 did Russia recover the lands thus surrendered to Poland, and then not all. But, from this time, she advanced again, and first in the south-west. On the Lower Dnieper the Cossack republic of Zaporogia, a territory in dispute between Turk, Tartar and Pole, had revolted from Poland and transferred its allegiance to Russia—a loss to which Poland had consented at Andrusovo. In 1680, by the Treaty of Bakchiserai, the Sultan also recognised the suzerainty of Russia in this territory. In 1686, Russia recovered Kieff, with its strong position on the Dnieper, once the ruling centre of Russia, and established her superiority over the Cossacks of the Ukraine. But she had not yet reached the Dwina and Dnieper, and beyond these streams there lay Russian land. In the eighteenth century, Russia advanced all along her western frontier, as well as southwards into the Caucasus and eastwards into Asia. It was the work of Peter the Great to establish her power on the Baltic, and to bring her decisively into western Europe, in spite of the inducement which her southward and eastward flowing streams offered to southward
and eastward expansion. At the Peace of Nystad, in 1721, he took from 54
Sweden the Baltic coast north of the Dwina—Livonia, Esthonia and the adjacent islands, Ingria, part of Carelia, and a small part of Finland including Viborg, and planted on the Baltic the capital of a new Russia, thus achieving what had, since the sixteenth century, been one of
the chief objects of Russian policy. In 1743, by the Peace of Åbo, 61
another corner of Finland was taken, and the Russian frontier advanced
to the river Kymmene. In 1772, Polish Livonia and all Polish terri- 58
tory east of the Düna and Dnieper were added to Russia, in 1795 another strip of the Baltic coast, Courland and Samogitia and all Lithuania east of the Niemen. Thus, the south-eastern Baltic littoral
passed from Sweden and Poland to Russia. The remainder of Finland, 108
together with the Åland Isles, came to Russia at the Peace of Frederikshamm, 1809. In the middle west, Russia advanced at the expense of
Poland. In 1772, in addition to the Baltic territory already mentioned, 58
she took all Polish territory east of the Düna and Dnieper; in 1793, the rest of Podolia and Ukraine, and parts of Volhynia and Podlesia—these acquisitions bringing back to her all Little Russia and White Russia as well as part of Lithuania; and, in 1795, the remainder of Podlesia and Volhynia, and, as stated above, all Lithuania east of the Niemen. Thus her ancient rival perished, and the Russian frontiers rested on those of Prussia and Austria.

On the Black Sea, Russia conquered Azoff in 1696, which by a truce 52
of 1700 was surrendered to her, together with all the land south, to the river Kuban. But, in 1711, Azoff was restored to the Porte. In 1774, at the Peace of Kutchuk Kainardji, Russia gained the territory between the Dnieper and the Bug, with the fortresses of Kuban, Kerch, Yenikale, and Perekop, which gave her a firm footing on the northern shore of the Black Sea. At the same time, Turkey admitted the independence of

Crimea, which Russia annexed in 1783, Turkey recognising the annexation at the Peace of Constantinople, in 1784. The Peace of Jassy, in 1792, gave to Russia the land between the Bug and the Dniester with the fortress of Ochakoff. These swift steps forward transferred to Russia more land than she could occupy, and necessitated an organised immigration, from which southern Russia has derived a special ethnographical character.

52 Between the Black Sea and the Caspian, and along the latter, Russia was also advancing. In 1723 Peter obtained the cession of Derbent and Baku, and the provinces of Gilyan, Mazanderan, and Astrabad contiguous to the south of the Caspian. But this initial advance proved premature. In 1732 Anne retroceded everything south of the Koura, and in 1735, in the Treaty of Gandja, ceded the remainder of Peter's conquests and returned to the line of the Terek. The Treaty of Kutchuk Kainardji, 1774, ended the Turkish dominion in Georgia and Imeritia, established the river Kuban as the boundary between Russia and Turkey, and gave to Russia Kabardia south of the Terek. The independence of the Tartars of Kuban was recognised. In 1783, Russia annexed Kuban, and Turkey recognised the annexation at the Peace of Constantinople, 1784. In 1796, Russia conquered Derbent, Kouba, Baku, and the Persian Khanates between Baku and East Georgia, but these conquests were abandoned. In 1800, Georgia was definitely and finally annexed, and Russian dominion was carried beyond the
108 Caucasus; in 1804, Mingrelia and Imeritia; and, in 1806, Derbent and Baku. In this latter year Gandja was taken. Russia's sway thus extended from the Caspian to the Black Sea. In her southern expansion Russia had distinct set-backs in 1711 and 1732–5; but she was surer in her hold on the Baltic and the Dnieper. In the north and middle west there was a natural halting-place to her expansion, when she had reduced Sweden to a Scandinavian kingdom, and, by the partition of Poland, had come into contact with the strong Powers of Prussia and Austria. But on the south-east there was no natural halting-place, while the Ottoman empire was decaying, and Russia's advance continued in the nineteenth century. And so in the Caucasus, no stable frontier had been found, and much was yet to be done. But, in the eighteenth century, Russia had learned the direction of her expansion, and in some quarters had reached her present limits. Over the great plains of eastern Europe she had advanced to the sea, or to meet Powers strong enough to check her. Of her expansion into northern and central Asia we shall speak later.

53 The extinction of the kingdom of Poland, whereby Russia, Austria, and Prussia consolidated their power, and in which it is noteworthy that Sweden, Poland's historic enemy, played no part, must be separately explained. In the seventeenth century the position of Poland was changed by the political transformation that was going on in north-eastern Europe. Her great enemies had been Sweden and Russia,

Sweden checking her Baltic expansion and threatening her Baltic
provinces, Russia disputing with her for the plains of the Düna and
Dnieper. Against Russia she had maintained an even, if not a
victorious, struggle. The rise of Prussia and the definite turning of 51
Russia to the west created a new position. When Brandenburg planted
herself in the middle of Polish territory by the acquisition of the
duchy of Prussia, it was certain that, either Poland must conquer
Prussia, or Brandenburg would link up her possessions at the expense
of Poland. The losses of Poland began in the middle of the seventeenth
century. By the Convention of Wehlau, 1657, she renounced her 59
suzerainty over East Prussia; by the Peace of Oliva, 1660, she sur- 53
rendered northern Livonia to Sweden; by the Peace of Andrusovo, 52
1667, she restored to Russia Smolensk, Sieverski and Chernigoff, the
places gained in 1618 and 1634, and recognised the loss of the trans-
Dnieper territory of Zaporogia; by the Peace of Budziak, 1672, and 48
the Peace of Zurawna, 1676, she surrendered Kameniec, the greater
part of Podolia, and part of the Ukraine to the Ottoman empire.
Podolia and Kameniec she recovered at the Peace of Carlowitz, 1699.
Two years earlier the crown of Poland had passed to the Electors of
Saxony, who held it till 1763. In the eighteenth century Poland was
in evil case. But she suffered no losses till 1770, when Austria annexed
the parts of the Hungarian county of Zips which had been pawned
to Poland in 1412. This was the beginning of the end. The partition
which followed was made in three stages. In 1772, Russia took the 61
provinces along her own frontier, Polish Livonia, part of Polozk, and
Witebsk, and made the Düna the frontier between the two countries.
There was a natural connexion between this land and Russia; it was
Russian land lost centuries before. Prussia took West Prussia and 59
Ermeland, the Netze district, a part of Great Poland and Cujavia,
but not Danzig and Thorn, which Poland retained. The acquisition
was of great political importance to Prussia, as linking up East Prussia
and Brandenburg. Austria took most of Red Russia and parts of Podolia 60
and Little Poland, the territory which became Galicia and Lodomeria.
By this partition Poland was diminished by one-third. In 1793, Prussia
and Russia joined to make a second partition. Prussia took Danzig and 59
Thorn, and so gained control of the Vistula, the rest of Great Poland
and Cujavia, as well as part of Masovia, which linked up Silesia and
West Prussia. Russia again annexed the provinces adjacent to herself, 61
the rest of Podolia and the Ukraine, which she now finally acquired,
parts of Volhynia and Podlesia, an area four times the size of that
which Prussia had taken and containing twice its population. Russia
and Austria were now contiguous. The buffer State had gone.
Poland still retained its three capital towns, Warsaw, Cracow, and Vilna,
but was so diminished that her hope of continued existence was small.
In 1795 the final division was made. Russia took Courland and 61

Samogitia, all Lithuania east of the Niemen, the remainder of Podlesia
and Volhynia. Her boundary now ran from Galicia along the Bug to
Brzesc, thence in a straight line to Grodno, thence along the Niemen to
60 the border of East Prussia. Austria extended the province of Galicia
by an addition of the whole district between the Pilica, the Vistula, and
the Bug, including Cracow, with the exception of a small area round
Warsaw, the piece of land between Vistula, Bug, and Narew, which
59 Prussia desired to secure her hold on that town. Prussia took the
remainder—a strip of territory which flanked nearly the whole of the
duchy of Prussia and a large part of the Prussian acquisitions in 1793,
Warsaw, with a piece of Little Poland adjacent to Silesia, the remainder
of Masovia, Podlachia, and Lithuania west of the Niemen. Thus, when
Poland fell to pieces, Russia regained what she had once lost to Lithuania,
and added to it the greater part of Lithuania herself, while Prussia and
Austria divided up the original Poland. The destruction of Poland was
in some sense a result of her want of geographical strength. She lay in
the valleys of the Dwina, Dnieper, Pripet, and Vistula. But nature had
not formed here an area with the geographical separateness that supports
separate political being. Thus, when on her frontiers historical causes
brought into being States with unity and strength, strong autocracies
in whose pathway she stood, a loosely organised individualist State, she
had not the necessary natural strength and unity to resist their expansion.

63 The Utrecht settlement in western Europe, as modified by slight
subsequent changes, and the partition of Poland in eastern Europe
appeared to have brought about a position of comparative stability.
We may sum up as follows the situation which the wars and diplomacy
of the eighteenth century had produced. In the British Isles, England
and Scotland were incorporated in one kingdom of Great Britain, having
a self-governing dependency in Ireland, and attached by a personal union
79 to the Electorate of Hanover. France had not gained the natural
frontiers she desired; but she had reached a position of security, and
the acquisition of Lorraine in 1766 followed naturally on the policy of
62 two centuries. In the group of States small and large, which made up
the German Empire, Austria, with her greatly increased territory in
southern Europe and her additions from Poland, was still the strongest.
But Prussia, which had grown up rapidly in the eighteenth century, and
held a strong position on the Baltic and in eastern Europe, menaced
61 her superiority. Russia rested firmly on the four seas which were her
natural outlet. In the north and west she had reached a position of
stability; in the south and to the east she was still advancing. Sweden,
62 driven from most of her conquests, still retained in Western Pomerania
a foothold on German soil. The kingdom of Sardinia had gained
ground in northern Italy, while Spain once more held a position in
the south, where, in Naples, a Spanish Bourbon line had reigned since
1735. Austria was predominant in the north of the peninsula. Venice

still kept her Adriatic dominion and her mainland territory. In south-
eastern Europe the Ottoman empire was receding before Austria and 48
Russia; but the process of its disruption had not yet begun.

B. GREATER EUROPE.

In the colonial world, the chief interest of this period gathers round
the extension of French and British colonisation, and the conflict between
these two Powers, which gave the British in the end an unquestioned
predominance in North America, the West Indies, and India. The 68
extension of British colonisation along the Atlantic coast of North
America proceeded apace in the later seventeenth century. After the
expulsion of the Dutch, the colonies of Delaware, New York, and New
Jersey were constituted. Pennsylvania was founded in 1682, New
Hampshire separated from Massachusetts in 1691, Carolina divided into
North and South in 1729, and Georgia founded in 1733. So the
thirteen colonies came into being. Meanwhile, from Quebec the French 67
penetrated the interior of North America. In 1681, they took posses-
sion of the Mississippi and tried to plant the colony of Louisiana at its
mouth, though New Orleans was not founded till 1718. They penetrated
to the Ohio in 1716 and occupied that river valley in 1753. In the
north-west they reached the great plains of Canada in 1730 and
discovered the Rocky Mountains in 1731. By successive stages England
acquired the French American possessions. She conquered Acadia in
1690, but restored it in 1697, and with it she gave up also Fort York
on Hudson Bay. At the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 she gained Acadia
with its uncertain boundaries, the French colony of Placentia in New-
foundland, and sovereignty over the five nations whose territory lay
south of Lake Ontario. Louisbourg, on Cape Breton Isle, was con-
quered in 1744, but restored by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.
In 1762, the French ceded New Orleans and Louisiana west of the
Mississippi to Spain; in 1763, by the Peace of Paris, Canada, with
Cape Breton Isle, Prince Edward's Isle and all their territory east of
the Mississippi, to Great Britain. Since Spain at the same Peace ceded
Florida, the whole of the eastern half of the continent passed into
British hands. France retained fishing rights on the northern shore of
Newfoundland and the two small islands of St Pierre and Miquelon
off its coast, all that remained to her of her imperial designs in North
America. The *hinterland* thus ceded to the British was joined by 68
proclamation of 1774 to the province of Quebec, and not to the colonies
of the coast which claimed to divide it.

In the West Indies there was an extension of colonisation and some 69
transference of power. Spain lost ground to France and the Teutonic
Powers. The French gained the western part of Santo Domingo in

1697, when Spain recognised their occupation, Santa Lucia in 1763, and Tobago in 1783. The Danes occupied St Thomas in 1671, and in 1733 bought Santa Cruz from the French. The English proclaimed their sovereignty over the Bahamas in 1670, and definitely occupied them in 1717; gained Jamaica from Spain at the Peace of Madrid, in 1670, and the French part of St Kitts at the Treaty of Utrecht, thereby expelling the French from the Leeward Islands; and, in 1763, they divided the Windward Islands with the French, taking Grenada, Dominica, St Vincent, and Tobago, of which the last named was ceded to the French in 1783.

65 The changes in Africa were various, though not of great importance, as there was little extension of European influence in Africa during this period. The Latin Powers lost, the Teutonic Powers gained ground—a development in accordance with the general change in the balance of maritime power. In East Africa the Portuguese were driven out of most of their stations north of Mozambique by the Arabs before the end of the seventeenth century. They lost Mombasa finally in 1730, and in 1752 they recognised that their dominion in this region was limited to the coast between Cape Delgado and Delagoa Bay. In Morocco too they lost their last foothold in 1769. In Angola, on the other hand, they extended their dominion in the later eighteenth century. Spain lost most of her North African possessions in the sixteenth century. Oran she retained till 1708, and held again from 1732 till 1791. In 1778 she acquired Fernando Po. On the Gold Coast, Brandenburg joined the English, Dutch, and Danes, and built Grossfriedrichsburg at Cape Three Points in 1682, thus beginning her colonial enterprise quite near to the region where, two hundred years later, she was to resume it. The Dutch concentrated on the Guinea Coast and South Africa. They ceded Gorée to France in 1678, deserted Mauritius in 1712, bought Grossfriedrichsburg, which they renamed Fort Hollandia, about 1720, and extended their settlements inland at the Cape—the only part of Africa where Europeans had anything more than the precarious foothold and fickle interests of trade. The English in 1763 took from the French their post on the Senegal, but returned it in 1783, and guaranteed to the French Arguin and Portendik. In 1787 they occupied Sierra Leone. The French occupied the Île de France (Mauritius) in 1721. Intermittently, they had a station at Albreda on the Gambia; and, in 1787, they acquired Dakar and Cape Verde from the natives.

64 In India, in these years, the British reduced the rival European Powers to relative impotence, and began the formation of a territorial dominion which gradually expanded into the Indian empire. The foundations of their power were laid in the seventeenth century in Fort St George, built in 1639 on the site now occupied by Madras, in Bombay, acquired by the East India Company in 1668, and made into a presidency in 1687, and in Fort William, planted on the present site of Calcutta, in

1686, to which were added in 1700 three neighbouring villages purchased from Aurungzeb's son. But it was not till the Seven Years' War that the British made those extensive acquisitions which ensured their future dominion. The district round Calcutta, known as the Twenty-Four Parganas, was acquired from the Nawab in three separate stages—1757, 1759, and 1765. In 1765, the *diwani*, or fiscal administration of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, with the jurisdiction of the Northern Circars, was granted to the Company. This establishment of the British in Bengal was the turning-point in the history of their conquest of India. It gave them the resources of the richest part of that country, and planted them firmly on a sea base in a region whence it was easy to advance over the whole of Hindustan. Their principal rivals were the French, whose sixth East India Company, established in 1719, sought in the confusion of India on the break-up of the Moghul empire to establish a great political dominion. In the contest that ensued the British lost Madras, in 1746; but they recovered it at the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. In the Seven Years' War they gained complete supremacy on the Coromandel coast, and at the Peace of Paris they put an end to the French political power in India. The French retained their stations, of which the most important were Pondicherry on the Coromandel coast, founded in 1674, and Chandernagore in Bengal, founded in 1676, as commercial posts only. No other Power rivalled the British in India. The Danes kept the settlements at Tranquebar and Serampur which they had established in 1616. The Portuguese retained Goa, Diu, and Damaun, and the Dutch definitely acquired Ceylon. But none of these Powers aimed at wide-reaching political dominion.

SECTION V.

THE AGE OF THE REVOLUTION AND OF NAPOLEON.

A. EUROPE.

With the French Revolution there began a series of rapid territorial
changes in western Europe which continued throughout the Napoleonic
era and overturned the political system of the eighteenth century. Of
these the principal was the expansion of France and the extension of
94 her influence throughout Europe. Napoleon reconstituted Europe by
enlarging France; by cutting down Prussia and Austria; by consolidating
and reorganising Germany, without Prussia and Austria, as a confedera-
tion under French suzerainty; by rearranging Italy, and by making the
new Italian States and Spain dependent on France.

84 In the course of these changes, the first clear landmark with regard
to the expansion of France was reached in the Peace of Basel, in 1795,
and, with regard to the resettlement of Italy, in the Peace of Campo
Formio, in 1797. By these treaties France attained her long desired
Rhine frontier, and resumed after an interval of centuries her attempt
to expand into Italy. The following were the principal stages in her
acquisitions. In 1791 (September), she annexed Avignon and the
Venaissin; in 1792 (December), the Austrian Netherlands. The latter
she lost in 1793, but recovered in 1794. In 1792, also, the bishopric
of Basel was secularised and became the republic of Rauracia, which
was annexed to France in 1793, though the Swiss did not ratify the
annexation till 1798. By the Treaty of Basel, in 1795, Prussia ceded to
France her territory on the left bank of the Rhine, which included
Upper Gelders, part of the duchy of Cleve, the principality of Mörs,
and the duchy of Jülich, though these places were not definitely
incorporated in French territory till 1801. Prussia was thereby thrown
89 back into northern and central Germany, where, in 1801, she received
compensation, and was in consequence really strengthened. Hesse-
Cassel ceded Rheinfels, St Goar and the part of the county of
Katzenellenbogen on the left bank of the Rhine. Holland by the
Treaty of the Hague, 1795, ceded Dutch Flanders, Maestricht, Venloo

and the enclaves south of Venloo. Würtemberg and Baden, in 1796, surrendered their possessions on the west of the Rhine, of which Montbéliard which belonged to Würtemberg was the chief.

There followed a complete overturning of the political system of Italy. Austrian Lombardy, Venetia, and part of the Papal States came into Bonaparte's hands and enabled him to reshape northern Italy, which he did by destroying Venice, driving Austria into north-eastern Italy, and creating in northern Italy a Cisalpine republic dependent on France. In 1796 the towns of Austrian Lombardy formed themselves into the Transpadane republic; and Bologna, Ferrara, Modena, and Reggio, into the Cispadane republic. In 1797, by the Treaty of Tolentino, the Pope surrendered to France the Legations of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna, and the port of Ancona, as well as Avignon; and, by the Treaty of Campo Formio, Austria surrendered Milan as well as the Austrian Netherlands. The two new Italian republics were merged in a Cisalpine republic (July, 1797), to which Bonaparte added the Valtelline, Bormio, and Chiavenna, taken from the Grisons in October, 1797; part of the territories west of the Adige taken from Venice, October, 1797; Lunigiana and a part of Parma, November, 1797; and Pesaro, February, 1798, thus strengthening this dependent State. To Austria, at Campo Formio, as compensation for her losses, were given the Venetian territories east of the Adige. The Powers most affected by these great changes were Austria and France. The general effect was to extend the territory of France and consolidate the territory of Austria. Austria lost the Netherlands and Milan, but, in occupying eastern Venetia, Istria, and Dalmatia, she gained an important sea-coast and a natural extension of her territories, and she consolidated her power on the Adriatic. France, for her part, gained those natural frontiers she had so long desired—the Rhine and the Alps, for Sardinia in 1796 ceded to her Nice and Savoy. At the same time she girded her frontiers with a line of dependent States. The Batavian republic, formed of the kingdom of Holland in 1795, the Ligurian republic, formed of the city of Genoa in 1797, the Helvetic republic, formed of the Swiss Confederation in 1798, and the Cisalpine republic, flanking the territory of Austria from the Alps to the Adriatic, were under French influence, and added security to her power. In the Ionian Isles she had a stepping-stone to the East. The new arrangements represented a great settlement of western Europe, which, in Italy, was evidently only partial; and they also gave to France a predominance which inevitably led her on to new adventures and greater designs.

A provisional settlement of Switzerland followed. In 1797, Chiavenna, Bormio, and the Valtelline had been taken from the Confederation and added to the Cisalpine republic. In 1798, France annexed Mülhausen, Geneva, and Bienne, and detached Neufchâtel. The remainder of

Switzerland was formed into the Helvetic republic, consisting at first of 23 and later of 19 cantons. In 1802, the Valais was detached, and
90 made into an independent republic. In 1803, by the Act of Mediation, the Helvetic republic was formed into a confederation of 19 sovereign cantons. To the 13 old cantons six new were added—two formed from the allies, the Grisons and St Gallen, four from the subject lands—Aargau (which was largely made up of districts ceded by Austria in 1801, including the Frick valley), Thurgau, Ticino, and Vaud.

89 The Peace of Lunéville, 1801, forms another landmark in the rearrangement of the European political system. It followed on the lines of Campo Formio in contracting the Austrian dominion in Italy and extending the French. A series of changes preceded the results thus recognised. In 1798 (February), the remainder of the Papal States was formed into the Roman republic, which lasted only a few months; in June, 1800, papal rule was restored. In March, 1800, the Ionian Islands became the republic of the Seven Islands. From January to July, 1799, the Parthenopean republic took the place of the kingdom of Naples. In 1798, the French occupied Piedmont, and the kingdom of Sardinia was reduced to the island from which it took its name. In 1800, the Novarese was added to the Cisalpine republic. At the Peace of Lunéville in 1801, Austria ceded to France Tuscany, the Breisgau and her possessions on the left bank of the Rhine—Frickthal, Falkenstein, Laufenburg, and Rheinfelden. The kingdom of Etruria was then built up out of Tuscany, the Stato degli Presidi, and some Imperial fiefs in the Apennines, and given to Louis, son of the Duke of Parma. The Breisgau and the Ortenau were given as compensation to the Duke of Modena, though occupied by the French till 1803. Piedmont was formally annexed by France, 1802, and the Cisalpine republic became the Italian republic. Thus the transformation of northern Italy was advanced another stage by the expansion of France and the contraction of Austrian power.

Though no position of equilibrium had been reached in Italy, the next great territorial development was the consolidation of Germany. To provide compensation for the German Princes who had surrendered territories to France in 1795 and 1801, a number of changes were necessitated within Germany itself. The decision of the Diet in 1803 reconstituted the map of Germany. By the secularisation of ecclesiastical States and the mediatisation of Imperial villages and towns a sixth part of Germany was redistributed, 112 States suppressed, and a number of States of moderate size, with some degree of geographical unity, were formed. An effort was made to simplify political geography by rounding off the dominions of the larger States and by uniting to them petty districts too insignificant to justify independence. Of the Imperial towns only six remained, the three great Hanseatic towns, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, and the great inland towns Frankfort,

Augsburg, and Nürnberg. The number of electors was raised from eight to ten by the addition of Salzburg, Baden, Würtemberg, and Hesse-Cassel, and the suppression of Trier and Cologne; while the number of circles was decreased from ten to eight by the disappearance of the Burgundian Circle and the amalgamation of the two Rhenish Circles. Bavaria lost the Rhenish Palatinate, Zweibrücken, and Jülich. She gained the bishoprics of Augsburg, Bamberg, Freising, and Würzburg. She divided with the newly formed electorate of Salzburg parts of the bishoprics of Passau and Eichstedt, and in addition gained seventeen Imperial towns, including Ulm, and twelve abbeys and priories situated mostly in the Suabian and Franconian Circles. Her territories were thus made more compact, and, in addition, her gains lay in the most fertile part of southern Germany. The territory of Baden was also considerably increased, and the Margrave was created an Elector. Baden acquired the bishopric of Constance and the portions of the bishoprics of Basel, Speier, and Strassburg, which lay to the east of the Rhine; part of the Palatinate hitherto Bavarian, including Heidelberg and Mannheim; seven Imperial towns, four abbeys and part of a fifth. The Duke of Würtemberg became Elector, and his dominions were enlarged by the acquisition of three Imperial towns and several abbeys in Suabia. A new duchy was formed out of the Breisgau and Ortenau by the treaty of December 26, 1802, between France and Austria, Austria being compensated with the secularised bishoprics of Trent and Brixen. The landgravate of Hesse-Darmstadt emerged from the crisis with satisfactory prospects, having gained, in return for some trifling losses, a narrow strip of territory between the Lippe and the Neckar, over 2000 square miles in extent, of which part had been previously held by the old duchy of Westphalia, the free city of Friedberg, and certain abbeys and villages, and part had been included in the dominions of the Archbishop of Mainz, the Palatinate, and the Bishop of Worms. The other branch of Hesse obtained nothing except the free town of Gelnhausen and the electoral dignity. The Nassau family were fortunate, especially the ex-Stadholder of Holland, William V of Orange, who received a principality created out of the abbacies of Fulda and Corvey and the free city of Dortmund. Usingen and Weilburg were united into one duchy by mutual agreement between the cousins, who were their rulers. Another new creation of the settlement of 1803 was the principality which was formed out of Aschaffenburg and the district round it, the cities of Wetzlar and Ratisbon, the secularised bishopric of Ratisbon, and three abbeys, for the Arch-Chancellor of the Empire and Primate of Germany—Dalberg—who was given the additional title of Elector Arch-Chancellor. Electoral rank was also given to the Duke of Salzburg, whose dominions were formed out of the old archbishopric of Salzburg, together with the priory of Berchtesgaden and a part of the bishopric of Passau.

While Prussia herself coveted Bamberg and Würzburg, Napoleon intended to compensate her with Mecklenburg and to transplant the two Dukes into Westphalia and Franconia. On the refusal of the Dukes to accept this proposition, Napoleon had to give up his idea of pushing Prussia east of the Elbe and to put her in possession of the bishoprics of Paderborn and Hildesheim, a large part of the bishopric of Münster, with the town included, the Thuringian possessions of Mainz—Erfurt and the Eichsfeld—six abbeys, and the cities of Mühlhausen, Nordhausen, and Goslar. Hanover obtained Osnabrück, but lost land to Nassau and Oldenburg. Oldenburg made gains, which included part of the bishopric of Münster. Saxony was not affected. Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, Salm, Aremberg, Isenburg, Thurn and Taxis, Löwenstein all survived with slight territorial changes, and the Teutonic Order and the Knights of St John were excepted from the widespread secularisations.

92 This consolidation of Germany was a prelude to a drastic reduction of the power of Prussia and Austria, the expulsion of their influence from eastern and southern Germany, and a reorganisation of these parts of Germany as a group of medium-sized States under the influence of France. In the wars of the third coalition Austria was humbled and suffered her first heavy losses at Napoleon's hands, while Prussia for the moment gained. Prussia, at the Peace of Schönbrunn (December, 1805) received Hanover provisionally, but was obliged to forfeit Ansbach to Bavaria, Neufchâtel and Wesel to France, and Cleve to a Prince of the Empire, not named in the treaty. Austria, at the Peace of Pressburg (December, 1805) received nothing but Salzburg and Berchtesgaden to set against her surrender of Venetia, Istria, and Dalmatia (with the exception of Trieste) to the newly formed kingdom of Italy, Brixen, Trent, Tyrol, and Vorarlberg to Bavaria, and all her Suabian possessions to Baden and Würtemberg. At the same time, the Emperor renounced all feudal rights over Bavaria, Baden, and Würtemberg, and recognised the complete and undivided sovereignty of the rulers of these dominions, while Bavaria gained in addition Augsburg and Nürnberg. In this way, by the end of 1805, a further advance had been made in the policy of creating several strong but secondary States to check the supremacy of Austria and Prussia in Germany. In addition, Bavaria and Würtemberg were created kingdoms, and Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt grand duchies. Bavaria was the chief gainer; but against her gains is to be set her loss of Würzburg, which was given to the Elector of Salzburg in return for the town of Salzburg, handed over to Austria, and of Berg, which France desired for herself. Early in 1806 Berg was united to Cleve, increased by the addition of parts of Nassau and Dillenburg, and formed into a grand duchy, and Würzburg was created an electorate and grand duchy.

On July 12, 1806, the Confederation of the Rhine was formed. It was a league of German States dependent on France and included, with the Arch-Chancellor's scattered territories (parts of the dioceses of Mainz,

Worms and Ratisbon), Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, Berg, Hesse-Darmstadt, Nassau-Usingen, Nassau-Weilburg, Hohenzollern-Hechingen, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, Salm-Salm, Salm-Kyrburg, Aremberg, Isenburg-Birstein, Lichtenstein, and the principality von der Leyen. It was
afterwards entered by Würzburg, Saxony (which was made into a king- 93
dom), five Dukes of Saxony of the Ernestine lines, three Dukes of Anhalt, four Princes of Reuss, two of Schwarzburg, two of Lippe, and one of Waldeck, the new kingdom of Westphalia, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and Oldenburg. Only Prussia, Brunswick, and (momentarily) Hesse-Cassel remained outside the Confederation. All the remaining dukes, counts, and knights were mediatised. They retained their feudal, but lost their sovereign, rights on their absorption into the various States, in whose dominions they had held land. The three remaining Imperial towns, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, maintained a precarious existence, till they were incorporated into the French empire, in 1810–11. On August 6, 1806, Francis II renounced the title of Emperor Elect, and the Holy Roman Empire ceased to exist even in name. The virtual loss of more than half its territories at the formation of the Confederation of the Rhine set the final seal to its long-impending doom. The historic political system of Germany was thus destroyed.

While this immense transformation was being worked in Germany,
Italy was passing through a series of kaleidoscopic changes of which 94
some have been already enumerated. In 1802, the Cisalpine and Novarese republics were converted into the Italian republic. Three years later, the Italian republic became the kingdom of Italy, and Napoleon crowned himself King at Milan in May, 1805. The expansion of France into Italy now proceeded apace. In 1805, the Ligurian republic was annexed; in 1806 the duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla; in 1808, Etruria for a year only, after which it was given to Napoleon's sister Elise, who had already received in 1805 Lucca and Piombino; in 1809 the Papal States west of the Apennines, and, in 1810, the Valais. Thus the frontiers of the French empire reached those of its dependency, the kingdom of Naples. A further consolidation was carried out by the enlargement of the kingdom of Italy, to which were added, in 1805, the old Austrian provinces of Venetia, Dalmatia, and Istria; in 1808, the March of Ancona, and the districts of Urbino, Macerata, and Camerino; and, in 1809, the southern Tyrol, from Bavaria. In March, 1806, the kingdom of the Two Sicilies came under French government, being assigned to Joseph Bonaparte, who relinquished it to Murat, on acquiring Spain in 1808. The map of Italy was complicated, however, by Napoleon's gifts of duchies to his generals and ministers. Within the territories of the kingdom of Italy, twelve new duchies were made by a series of decrees of March 30, 1806. In Lucca, Parma, and Piacenza, duchies were carved

out for four of Napoleon's marshals. Talleyrand and Bernadotte re-
ceived Benevento and Ponte Corvo, papal enclaves in the kingdom of
Naples; and Reggio, Taranto, Gaeta, and Otranto were bestowed on
less well-known men.

When Germany, Switzerland, and Italy had been reorganised, the
Batavian republic converted into the kingdom of Holland (1806), and
Spain placed under the rule of a French king, Napoleon proceeded to
contract further the power of Prussia and Austria. At the Peace of Tilsit,
93 in July, 1807, Prussia was all but crushed. She was left with nothing
but the lands between the Elbe and Oder, East Pomerania, East and
West Prussia, less Danzig, Thorn, and the district of Netze, and Silesia.
With the lands thus seized from Prussia Napoleon built up the new
States he had formed. In January, 1808, the grand duchy of Berg was
increased by the annexation of the Prussian countships of Mark and
Tecklenburg, together with a part of the principality of Münster and
the county of Lingen. The Rhine fortress of Wesel, which had
previously been included in the grand duchy, was ceded to France.
The new kingdom of Westphalia was formed out of the Westphalian
provinces of Prussia and the southern part of Hanover, together with
Hesse-Cassel and Brunswick. In January, 1810, it absorbed Lauenburg
and the remainder of Hanover. The grand duchy of Warsaw (founded
58 in 1807, but not so styled till 1808) was composed of the Prussian
share in the second and third partitions of Poland (1793 and 1795),
with the exception of Danzig (which became nominally independent,
but was actually occupied by a French garrison), the Bialystok district,
which went to Russia, and Cottbus, which was given to Saxony. The
93 plan on which these States were formed is hard to understand, and
Warsaw never had a defensible frontier till 1809, when, at the Peace
of Schönbrunn, it acquired the Polish lands south-east of Warsaw.

93 The humiliation of Prussia was complete; but Austria had still to
suffer even greater losses. In October, 1809, by the Treaty of Schön-
brunn, she recognised the cession to France of Trieste, Carniola, Fiume,
Monfalcone, the circle of Villach in Carinthia, and all her possessions
on the right bank of the Save as far as the frontier of Bosnia; of
Salzburg, Berchtesgaden, and the Innviertel to Bavaria; of West Galicia
and Cracow to Warsaw; and of the south-east corner of Old Galicia
to Russia, which not only robbed her of her recent acquisitions, but
94 cut in two the Habsburg hereditary possessions. The territory ceded
to France together with Istria and Dalmatia was designated the Illyrian
Provinces and became a part of the French empire, which thus crossed
the Adriatic. Bavaria was considerably affected by this rearrangement.
She ceded southern Tyrol to the kingdom of Italy, and, in addition
to the acquisitions already mentioned, received Baireuth (1810) and
Ratisbon. With Austria thus driven from the Adriatic eastwards,
the settlement of southern Germany and Italy was complete. But in

Holland and northern Germany the transformation continued. Holland, which had received East Friesland, was, in 1810, annexed to France. At the same time France extended her territories beyond the Elbe to the Baltic, at the expense of Westphalia, Berg, and other members of the Confederation of the Rhine, in such a way as to obtain command of the mouths of the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe. In the new departments thus formed, the last of the Imperial towns, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, were swallowed up.

The political system which Napoleon had thus established in western and central Europe consisted of a predominant France, which stretched from the Baltic to the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, and outside of the bounds of France commanded all the German North Sea, the eastern Adriatic, and the whole bend of north-western Italy so far south as Ponte Corvo; of a group of dependent States—the German States organised in the Confederation of the Rhine, the Swiss Confederation, the kingdom of Italy, the kingdom of Naples, and the kingdom of Spain; of the kingdoms of Prussia and Austria, both expelled from western Europe and reduced to boundaries unknown in their previous history, with the grand duchy of Warsaw planted between them as a revival of the old kingdom of Poland. The independence of Portugal had not been suppressed, nor Sweden driven out of Germany, nor the form of Russia changed, and neither the Ottoman empire nor Scandinavia had been reorganised, while Great Britain, though driven from the Continent, except from Gibraltar, was supreme on the sea and in the colonial world. In Europe, all centred round the continental supremacy of France.

After the defeat of Napoleon in 1814, and again in 1815, and the **102**
overthrow of the French dominion he had established, an attempt was made to undo his work and to rearrange the political system of Europe according to a balance of power such as had been constituted in the eighteenth century. The first problem of the new settlement was necessarily the position of France.

With a rapidity only equalled by that with which it had been **102,**
formed, the great French empire crumbled to pieces, and at the Peace **103**
of Paris, to which France had to submit on May 30, 1814, the main question to be settled was, how far the French frontier should differ from the frontier of 1792. The following modifications, involving a net gain of territory amounting to 150 square miles, were finally agreed upon. In return for a small loss in the department of the Moselle, France received certain portions of the departments of Jemappes, Sambre et Meuse, and Saare, which had not been included in 1792. She was permitted to retain the fortress of Landau, which she had possessed as an insulated territory in 1792, and given a portion of the departments of Mont Tonnerre and Bas Rhin, "for the purpose of uniting the said fortress and its radius to the rest of the kingdom." The Rhine continued to be the frontier from a spot close to Landau, special

arrangements being made, in the event of its altering its course, to secure the islands to the country that possessed them in 1801 at the time of the Treaty of Lunéville. In the departments of Doubs, Léman, and Mont Blanc France gained the largest amount of territory, including the sub-prefectures of Chambéry and Annecy. Avignon, the Venaissin, Montbéliard, and all the insulated territories which had been in German hands, were declared French, whether they had been occupied by 1792 or not.

This not unfavourable treatment of France was slightly modified after the abrupt return of Napoleon and the Hundred Days. By the settlement, which was arrived at in November of the following year at the Second Peace of Paris, it was arranged that the frontiers of France should correspond as nearly as possible with her frontiers in 1790, before the revolutionary armies had gained even their first successes. This implied the loss of the duchy of Bouillon with Philippeville and Marienburg, a strip of territory along the river Saare, including Saarbrück and Saarlouis, the fortress of Landau and the territory in its neighbourhood; and the small portion of the French Pays de Gex, which had brought the French frontier at one point to Lake Geneva, was taken from France and handed over to the Helvetic Confederacy. Finally, French rights in Monaco were forfeited in favour of Sardinia.

102 In the attempt which was made at the same time by the Congress of Vienna to settle the rest of Europe after the shock to which it had been submitted by the far-reaching designs of Napoleon, the same principle was followed, and an effort was made to return once more to the days before the Revolution, though no fixed date of the eighteenth century was selected to provide a *status quo ante*, as in the settlement of France. In eastern Europe, Poland was once again wiped from
107 the map. Prussia received the grand duchy of Posen, with Thorn and the surrounding district, her frontier now passing between the two
111 frontiers she had gained at the first and second partitions. Austria retained the province of Galicia, recovering the district on the extreme east, which had been surrendered to Russia in 1809. Cracow, together with a narrow strip of territory round it, was declared neutral and independent, and guaranteed as such by Russia, Austria, and Prussia.
108 The rest of Poland was irrevocably attached to Russia, and the Tsars of Russia were to be Kings of Poland. Of the three Powers that at the close of the eighteenth century had partitioned Poland and now absorbed it finally, Russia made no further gains at Vienna. Austria recovered
102, all the territory lost at the five disastrous pacifications of Campo
111 Formio, Lunéville, Pressburg, Fontainebleau, and Schönbrunn. She was thus secured in possession of Istria, Austrian and Venetian Dalmatia, the ancient Venetian islands of the Adriatic, the Bocche di Cattaro, the city of Venice with its immediate territory, the principalities of Brixen and Trent, the county of Tyrol, the Vorarlberg, the Austrian and

Venetian Friuli, Monfalcone, Trieste, Carniola, Upper Carinthia, Croatia on the right bank of the Save, Fiume and the Hungarian littoral. The Valtelline, Bormio, and Chiavenna became part of the Austrian 104
possessions in Italy, which were known collectively as the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. Kleck still remained in Ottoman hands, so that Austria failed to obtain the whole of the Illyrian coast-line; but her seaboard, extended by the acquisition of the republic of Ragusa, was considerably larger than it had previously been. At the same time Austria definitely gave up her position on the Rhine. By one of the articles of the Treaty of Vienna she was given all the territories in certain districts on the left bank of the Rhine not otherwise disposed of; but Metternich used these for exchanges elsewhere. But these 107
losses were trifling in comparison with her gains, and consisted merely of the cession of Breisgau to Baden and Würtemberg, Ortenau to Baden, and her Suabian possessions to Bavaria.

Enough of the kingdom of Saxony was left to act as a partial barrier **102,**
between Austria and Prussia; but Prussia received, under the title of **107**
the duchy of Saxony, Lower Lusatia, including Cottbus, the greater part of Upper Lusatia and the district round the towns of Wittenberg, Torgau, and Merseburg, all her rights in which Austria renounced. It would have suited France well if Prussia had been given the whole of Saxony and offered the opportunity of concentrating herself as an East German Power, remote from the Rhine and the coveted provinces of Alsace and Lorraine. But this was not to be. It was decided to restore to Prussia her territories in western Germany instead. She recovered Altmark, Cleve, Halberstadt, Upper Gelders, Mark, and Ravensberg, Magdeburg, Minden, Paderborn, and most of Münster. She acquired the greater part of Trier, and that part of Cologne which lay on the left bank of the Rhine, together with Berg and Jülich, and portions of Nassau, Thuringia, and Westphalia. In the north, Sweden ceded to her at last the remainder of Pomerania, which included Rügen and Stralsund. By the side of these gains her losses were small. She handed over to Russia a large strip of territory in Poland, which included Warsaw; and she relinquished Hildesheim, East Friesland, Goslar, Lingen, Osnabrück, and a part of Münster to Hanover; Ansbach and Baireuth to Bavaria; and the part of the duchy of Lauenburg which she had acquired from Hanover to Denmark. She was thus left as unformed as in the eighteenth century, with her territories scattered over a large part of Germany, geographically incomplete, and under the strongest temptations to remedy this defect.

In Germany, next to Prussia, Bavaria underwent the greatest change. In return for her cessions to Austria she received the duchy of Würzburg and the principality of Aschaffenburg, Ansbach and Baireuth, Nürnberg and Ratisbon. On the Rhine, she was given, together with the sovereignty of the federal fortress of Landau, territory from the former

French departments of Bas Rhin, Mont Tonnerre, and Saare, which became known as the Bavarian Palatinate; and in addition she obtained the reversion of the Baden share of the Palatinate. Baden emerged in possession of all she had gained during the Napoleonic wars, including her portion of the Palatinate round Lake Constance, Heidelberg, Mannheim, and part of Breisgau. Hesse-Darmstadt, Hesse-Cassel, Oldenburg, Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Coburg, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, and Hesse-Homburg all received noticeable additions to their territories.

But more important than these territorial changes in Germany was the political creative work, the formation of the Germanic Confederation, which was finally sanctioned at Vienna. The way had previously been smoothed at Kalisch, Töplitz, Chaumont, and Paris, where Prussia had renounced her claims to Hanover, Austria her designs on Bavaria, and "compensation" and "full and unconditional independence" had been guaranteed to the various Princes. The constitution, which was finally presented to Germany, was a confederation formed on the lines of the Confederation of the Rhine with the addition and inclusion of Austria and Prussia. Under the presidency of Austria, the Diet was to be composed of representatives of the following sovereign States: the kingdoms of Bavaria, Hanover, Prussia, Saxony, Würtemberg; the grand duchies of Baden, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Darmstadt, Luxemburg (the vote being exercised by the King of the Netherlands), Oldenburg, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Saxe-Weimar; the duchies of Anhalt-Bernburg, Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Köthen, Brunswick, Holstein, Lauenburg (the vote being exercised by the King of Denmark), Nassau, Saxe-Gotha, Saxe-Hildburghausen; the principalities of Hesse-Homburg, Hohenzollern-Hechingen, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, Lichtenstein, Lippe-Detmold, Saxe-Coburg, Saxe-Meiningen, Schaumburg-Lippe, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, Reuss, the older and younger lines, Waldeck; the free cities of Bremen, Frankfort, Hamburg, and Lübeck. The enlargement of Prussia and the formation of the Germanic Confederation were the essential conditions of the subsequent political changes of Germany.

102, In Italy Napoleon's policy of unification was reversed, and the old
104 order was restored as far as possible. Sardinia was reinstated in her position of 1792 with slight modifications. Some territory in Savoy was ceded to Geneva; while Genoa, now receiving the title of a duchy, with the Imperial fiefs of the late Ligurian republic, was incorporated in the kingdom of Sardinia. The provinces of Chablais and Faucigny, and all Savoy north of the Ugine, were included in the European guarantee of "the neutrality of Switzerland." Venetia and Lombardy came once more under Austrian government. The duchies of Modena, Reggio, and Mirandola were given to Duke Francis IV d'Este; the duchy of Massa and certain Imperial fiefs in the Lunigiana were given to his mother and incorporated with Modena at her death in 1829. The

duchies of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla were assigned for her life to the ex-Empress Marie Louise; Lucca fell to her namesake the Bourbon ex-Queen of Etruria. The Archduke Ferdinand of Austria received the grand duchy of Tuscany with the Presidi, Elba, Piombino, and certain late Imperial fiefs, although in Elba and Piombino certain rights were withheld in favour of Prince Ludovisi Buoncompagni. The Papal States were restored to the Holy See, the Marches and Camerino, the duchy of Benevento, the principality of Ponte Corvo and the legations of Ravenna, Bologna, and Ferrara being again expressly included. The republic of San Marino alone remained independent within the sphere of the Pope's temporal domains. The kingdom of the Two Sicilies reverted without territorial change to Ferdinand IV.

In Switzerland little change was made. Bern finally gave up her **112** pretensions to sovereignty over Vaud and Aargau, being compensated by the inclusion in her territory of the bishopric of Basel and the town and territory of Bienne, and several less important territorial changes were made among the various cantons. The nineteen cantons were by the inclusion of Valais, which had recently been a French department, Neufchâtel, which still acknowledged the sovereignty of the King of Prussia, and Geneva, which was increased by the cession of territory in Savoy by the King of Sardinia, united into a loose federal union of twenty-two cantons, with the directorate rotating in biennial periods between the three most important, Bern, Zurich, and Luzern.

With reference to Spain and Portugal, the Congress had little to **102** arrange outside of the colonial world. All that Portugal got in return for her splendid resistance to the French in the Peninsular War was a promise, never realised, that the town of Olivença, which was retained in Spanish hands, should ultimately be restored to Portugal.

More important was the settlement of the Netherlands. Two factors **102,** determined the policy of uniting the Belgic Provinces with the United **109** Provinces of the Netherlands, under the title of the Kingdom of the Netherlands. The need of a moderately powerful kingdom to act as a buffer between France and Prussia was strongly felt, and some way had to be found of compensating the Dutch for the loss of colonies to Great Britain. The kingdom thus formed included the duchy of Limburg and the bishopric of Liége. Prussia was made expressly to renounce claims to various enclaves. Luxemburg, though not included in the new kingdom, was made into a grand duchy under the sovereignty of the King of the Netherlands, and enlarged by the addition of a part of the duchy of Bouillon.

An experiment similar to that made with the kingdom of the **102** Netherlands was tried in Scandinavia, in the cession of Norway to Sweden. Denmark, although led to believe that she would receive

Swedish Pomerania, was forced to look on, while it was handed over to Prussia, and to be content with the small part of Lauenburg, which had been given up by Hanover. The duchy of Finland, lost by Sweden in 1809, remained in Russian hands.

All that England gained in Europe was Malta, Heligoland, and the protectorate of the Ionian Islands, whilst she consented to the cession of a portion of Hanover.

B. GREATER EUROPE.

This period of revolution and change in Europe coincides roughly with a period of revolution in her colonies, which led to the foundation in America of a group of independent States and of a separate political
70 system. It is also characterised by the fact that Great Britain, though losing a large part of her possessions, nevertheless increased her relative superiority as the greatest colonising Power, owing to the maritime supremacy which she gained during the Napoleonic Wars, and the colonial conquests which this enabled her to make. The colonial revolutions began in North America in 1776 with the revolt of the thirteen British colonies. By the Peace of Versailles in 1783 Great Britain recognised the independence of the thirteen colonies, and thus was formed the first State of European origin outside of Europe. At the same time she ceded to them the western lands from the Alleghanies to the Mississippi—a substantial part of her acquisitions from France in 1763—which gave them the natural field of their expansion. As, by this Peace, she also restored Florida to Spain, she retired altogether from the continental theatre of the greatest colonising work she has done. In 1789 the revolted British colonies joined to form the United States of America, and immediately began their great expansion across the American continent. In 1803
70, 72 they purchased Louisiana from France, to whom it had been restored by Spain in 1800, and thus brought their frontiers to the Rocky Mountains. Explorers penetrating to the Pacific down the Columbia in 1792 and 1806 established claims in Oregon which rivalled those of the Hudson Bay Company. In 1812, the Americans occupied part of Florida, and in 1819 acquired the whole from Spain. Thus rapidly North America east of the Rockies passed into their hands. In the north of Louisiana, by agreement of 1818 with Great Britain, the parallel of 49° was fixed as the frontier, from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains, and the joint occupation of Oregon was provisionally agreed upon. As settlement proceeded in the west, new States were formed, Kentucky in 1792, Tennessee in 1796, Ohio in 1802, Louisiana in 1812, Indiana in 1816, Mississippi in 1817, Illinois in 1818, Alabama in 1819 and Maine in 1820. The expanding population of the country enabled the Americans to hold securely the vast dominion which had passed so easily into their hands.

In Spanish America, as the result of a series of revolutions, Mexico, including Texas, made herself independent in 1821, and Texas freed herself from Mexico in 1836. A group of small States was formed in Central America—Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, San Salvador, and Costa Rica. In South America, Venezuela and New Granada formed the republic of Colombia in 1819, to which Quito was added in 1822, but which divided in 1830 into the three republics of New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador. Chile established her independence in 1818, the Argentine in 1816, Uruguay in 1828, Paraguay in 1811, Peru in 1821. In 1825, Upper Peru became a separate republic under the name of Bolivia. Brazil proclaimed its independence of Portugal in 1822. **106**

Thus in America Portugal lost all her possessions; Spain, all, **100,**
except Florida, which she retained till 1819, and her West Indian **101**
Islands; France lost Hayti, which established its independence in 1793, but recovered Louisiana which she held till 1803; Great Britain lost all except her West Indian Islands, her part of Honduras, Hudson's Bay, Newfoundland, and part of the territory which she had conquered from France in 1714-63, viz. Acadia, at this time called Nova Scotia, Canada, and the adjacent islands. But, while Great Britain lost by these wars of colonial independence, she greatly increased her colonial empire during this period at the expense of other European Powers and by new colonising efforts. At the settlement of 1815, she gained, in the West Indies, Trinidad, St Lucia, and Tobago, taken from France; in South America, part of Dutch Guiana; in Africa, the Dutch settlement at the Cape of Good Hope; in the Indian Ocean, Mauritius, the French naval base in the East, with its dependencies Rodrigues and the Seychelles; in India, Ceylon and Cochin, with its dependencies on the Malabar coast, taken from the Dutch. She had, also, in 1788, annexed New South Wales and begun the colonisation of Australia, and in 1815 she occupied Ascension Island. These were the lasting changes which followed many transfers of possessions during the course of the war.

In India, the British power was preserved and much increased. Warren Hastings not only guarded our position in northern India through the disastrous War of 1778-83, but made new if small acquisitions. By the end of the Napoleonic Wars, Great Britain had secured herself finally against her European rivals in India, and, by a series of wars with the native Powers and extensive additions to her territories in northern and southern India, had made herself the dominant Power in the whole country. But the course of her expansion, little connected relatively with the transformation of Europe or the revolution in the colonial world, is best related consecutively in another connexion.

SECTION VI.

SINCE 1815.

A. EUROPE.

141 Since the settlement of 1815, the political system of Europe has been modified in important ways. In central Europe the national spirit brought about the union and consolidation of races politically divided; in north-west and south-east Europe it broke the political ties which bound together peoples naturally separate. The unification of Germany and Italy may be traced to the same motive force, which upset the unions of the Belgic and the United Provinces, of Norway and Sweden, and liberated the diverse nations of the Balkan peninsula. The fresh vitality of France and the almost unchecked advance of Russia were also inspired by the same national self-consciousness. The States of Europe are not the same as the nations; but the tendency to assimilate the two has been the strongest influence shaping the political system of Europe in the nineteenth century. No State such as was ruled by Charles V in the sixteenth century, by Sweden, Spain, and Austria in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, or by Napoleon in the nineteenth, has been formed in Europe since 1815.

107 The greatest of the changes that transformed the political system of Europe in the nineteenth century was the formation of the German Empire under the leadership of Prussia, which gave, for the first time in modern history, a real political unity to the majority of the German people. This was brought about, on the one hand, by the steady increase of Prussian power and influence in the Germanic Confederation, and, on the other, by the growing desire for closer union that animated the nation; and it involved the important consequence that Austria was excluded from that German world in which for centuries she had played the most prominent part. For fifty-one years the Germanic Confederation continued to exist. Within its bounds, however, the process of unification made itself evident on the map as well as in the minds of the people. A few insignificant States disappeared, and their disappearance showed a changing attitude towards the political independence of the various individual States. In 1826 Saxe-Gotha was incorporated

with Saxe-Coburg, and Saxe-Hildburghausen with Saxe-Meiningen. In 1853, the duchy of Anhalt-Köthen was united with that of Anhalt-Dessau; and, on the extinction of the line of Anhalt-Bernburg in 1863, the third branch was absorbed into what became the single duchy of Anhalt. In 1866, on the extinction of the male line of the reigning house of Hesse-Homburg, the landgravate was annexed to Hesse-Darmstadt. But this arrangement was not to last for long; for in the same year Hesse-Homburg was claimed and acquired by Prussia. Prussia also absorbed Lichtenberg in 1834, and Hohenzollern-Hechingen and Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, the cradle of the ruling dynasty, in 1849. In 1837, on the death of William IV, the old dynastic connexion of Hanover with Great Britain was broken, and a foreign influence in Germany, which was no longer of importance in fact, ceased to exist even in name.

The political union of Germany under Prussia was foreshadowed by an economic union brought about under the same leadership. The origin of the Zollverein may be seen in the convention between Prussia and Schwarzburg-Sondershausen signed in 1819. Rival customs' unions were formed by Würtemberg in conjunction with Bavaria, and by Saxony; but they failed to survive, and were in the end absorbed. In 1828 Hesse-Darmstadt and Anhalt joined the Prussian Union, and in 1831 Hesse-Cassel. At the beginning of 1834 Bavaria joined, and the union henceforth became German rather than Prussian in conception. Later, in 1834, Saxony and the Thuringian States came in; Baden, Nassau and the city of Frankfort followed in the next year, Waldeck in 1838, and Luxemburg in 1842. In 1851, the Northern League, which included Hanover, Brunswick, Oldenburg, the two Lippes, the two Mecklenburgs, and the three Hanse towns, collapsed. Only the Austrian dominions were now excluded; apart from these the Zollverein created by Prussia embraced the whole of Germany. The small territorial acquisitions of Prussia, and the formation of the Customs' Union on her initiative, were among the facts which stamped Prussia as the future leader of Germany. Three distinct Wars mark the stages in which she carried out the task of uniting Germany in an empire in which she was to possess the dominant power. The first of these Wars arose about Schleswig-Holstein.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, both Schleswig and **107,**
Holstein were still united to the Danish Crown, although they retained **116**
their position as independent duchies. The two duchies were closely connected with each other; but Holstein alone was included in 1815 in the Germanic Confederation. In 1848, the duchies renounced the sovereignty of the King of Denmark, and established a provisional government. But, in 1852, by the Treaty of London, the sovereignty of the King of Denmark was reasserted by the Powers. On the plea of a breach of this treaty, Austria and Prussia intervened in 1864, and,

by the Treaty of Vienna of October, 1864, the King of Denmark renounced his rights over the duchies of Schleswig, Holstein and Lauenburg in favour of Prussia and Austria. This rather vague arrangement was supplemented in 1865 by the Convention of Gastein, by the terms of which Prussia was given the administration of Schleswig, and Austria the administration of Holstein; Lauenburg was secured by Prussia in return for a money payment to Austria, but was not incorporated in Prussia for eleven years. This agreement brought Austria and Prussia into direct contact with each other in the two duchies; and in 1866 the two claimants for the leadership of Germany since the time of Frederick the Great terminated their rivalry in a war in which Austria was defeated. By the Peace of Prague, which was concluded in August, 1866, the political conditions of Germany were transformed, and Prussia gained a great increase of power. Saxony, though nominally independent, became little more than a vassal State. Hanover (with East Friesland), the electorate of Hesse, Nassau, part of the grand duchy of Hesse, Hesse-Homburg, and Frankfort-on-the-Main, were annexed. Austria resigned all rights over the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, which were thus permanently acquired by Prussia, and promised to cede Venetia to Sardinia; the Germanic Confederation was dissolved, and Austria excluded from the new North German Confederation which was set up in its stead; Austria concurred in the formation of a South German league, bounded on the north by the river Main. On June 19, 1867, the constitution of the North German Confederation was adopted by the Diet. The Confederation consisted of twenty-two members—Prussia (which included Lauenburg as well as her other new acquisitions), with the presidency and seventeen votes; Saxony with four; Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Brunswick with two each; and the other States—Hesse (confined to those parts which were situated north of the Main), Saxe-Weimar, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Oldenburg, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Anhalt, Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, Waldeck, Reuss (elder line), Reuss (younger line), Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe-Detmold, Lübeck, Bremen, and Hamburg with one vote each. The customs' union included the same territories, with the exception of the three Hanse towns, which were left free ports. The South German Confederation was never actually formed. In 1867–8 Baden, Bavaria, and Würtemberg entered into a military and economic union with the North German Confederation; and under the influence of the national feeling aroused by the War of 1870, these three States and the part of Hesse south of the Main applied separately for union with the North German Confederation, which they entered in 1870. The creation of a German Empire having been previously ratified by the North German Confederation and the Diets of the southern States, the King of Prussia was on January 18, 1871, hailed at Versailles as Emperor of a united

Germany. The territories of the Empire were declared to be the same as those of the North German Confederation, with the addition of the rest of Hesse, Bavaria, Baden, and Würtemberg. Bavaria was given six votes, Würtemberg four, Baden three, and Hesse two. Thus was the union of Germany accomplished, and the part played by Prussia was recognised in Article XI of the constitution, which declared that "The Presidency of the Confederation belongs to the King of Prussia,
who bears the name of German Emperor." By the Treaty of Frankfort, 118
May 10, 1871, France ceded Alsace and Lorraine to the German empire. It was no longer to Prussia, as was the case with Schleswig and Holstein, that cessions were made. The new German territory included the important towns of Metz and Strassburg; but an exception was made of Belfort and the surrounding district, which was retained by France. Alsace-Lorraine, though sharing the Federal Constitution of Germany, was given no vote in the *Bundesrath*, but administered by a vicegerent appointed by and responsible to the imperial Government.

Since 1871 the German empire has been steadily consolidating itself. In 1884, the line of Brunswick became extinct, and the duchy, still remaining a separate federal State, was given to a Hohenzollern prince. In 1890, the island of Heligoland was ceded by Great Britain and incorporated in the Prussian administrative division of Schleswig-Holstein. The political and fiscal frontiers of Germany do not exactly coincide. By 1888, the Hanse towns had all entered the fiscal union, so that no part of the Empire is excluded; but the Zollverein also includes Luxemburg and two Austrian communes which are not within the political frontier.

In Italy, the settlement of 1815 was even less enduring than in **104**
Germany. Italy was destined to undergo the greatest change which she has known in modern times, for she was to gain independence of foreign rule as well as unity. Some minor changes preceded this revolution in her political conditions. Massa-Carrara reverted in 1829 to Modena, in accordance with the arrangements made in the Treaty of Vienna; and, in 1847, on the death of Marie Louise, Lucca, with the exception of Lunigiana and Pontremoli, was restored to Tuscany, while Parma reverted to Louis de Bourbon.

The kingdom of Sardinia played the same part in the union of Italy which Prussia played in the formation of the German empire. But, owing to foreign dominion in Italy, the union of Italy was not achieved with the rapidity which characterised the union of Germany. In 1859 Sardinia drove the Austrians from Lombardy, and the cession of this province was secured. In accordance with the Convention of Plombières, by which Sardinia in the event of becoming sovereign over a people numbering eleven millions undertook to cede Savoy to France, Cavour gave up to France the province which had been the cradle of the reigning dynasty. Napoleon III, uneasy at the growth of so formidable

a Power across the Alps, claimed also Nice, and, in March, 1860, the double cession was made. In the same year, Tuscany, Parma, Modena, the Papal States with the exception of the Patrimony of St Peter, Naples, and Sicily, were annexed to Sardinia. The surrenders west of the Alps brought the House of Savoy completely into Italy; while the new annexations offered the most striking illustration of that tendency of Savoy to move eastwards which had been manifested by all her previous history, and assured the union of Italy under her leadership. In 1861, Victor Emmanuel II assumed for himself and his successors the title of King of Italy, and the capital was fixed at Turin, till its removal to Florence in 1865. By the Treaties of Prague and Vienna, 1866, which concluded the Austro-Prussian War, Venetia was united to the kingdom of Italy. Thus, in 1866 only the Patrimony of St Peter, with Rome, was needed in order to make the union of Italy complete. In September, 1870, Rome fell into the hands of the Italian patriots, and the temporal authority of the Pope, which had lasted for eleven centuries, and had offered the strongest obstacle to the formation of a united Italian State, came to an end. In July, 1871, Rome became the seat of government of the new kingdom of Italy. Thus, in 1871, united Italy took her place among the Great Powers. She has made no further territorial gains or losses in Europe.

103 Certain modifications in the frontiers of France, resulting for the most part from these changes in Germany and Italy, may here be enumerated. In 1860 Savoy and Nice were incorporated. In 1861 the principality of Monaco surrendered the greater part of its territory, including Mentone and Roccabruna, and was thus cut down to the narrowest limits. In 1871, the loss of Alsace and Lorraine deprived France of her cherished contact with the Rhine, and with those South German States over which she had so long exercised a strong political influence. Thus, while France has advanced to the Alps in the south-east, she has receded from the Rhine in the middle east.

105, In the Balkan peninsula, during the nineteenth century, a process of
119, disruption has brought into being a group of independent States, while
120 the territories of the Ottoman empire have been still further diminished by the annexations of Russia, Austria, and Great Britain. Greece, Servia, Wallachia and Moldavia (under the name of Roumania), Montenegro and Bulgaria, have made themselves independent; Russia has advanced almost to the Danube; Austria has encroached on the north-west; and Great Britain has preyed on outlying possessions which were material to her maritime power.

The kingdom of Greece was the first of the new States to be formed. In 1827, the Treaty of London established the autonomy of Greece, and, in 1829, at the Treaty of Adrianople the Sultan recognised her independence. In 1830, the frontier of Greece was fixed from the river Aspro to the Gulf of Volo, and, in 1832, it was extended on the west coast up to

the Gulf of Arta. In addition to the mainland territory she received the islands adjoining the Morea, Euboea and the Cyclades. The Crown was bestowed on Otho, son of the Duke of Bavaria, who assumed his office in 1833. Since achieving her independence, Greece has made some 120
territorial acquisitions. In 1864 Great Britain handed over to her the Ionian Isles, over which she had maintained a protectorate since 1815, though giving up, in 1819, Parga, the one continental possession of these islands. In 1881 Greece acquired Thessaly and a portion of Epirus from the Ottoman empire. In 1897, however, she restored certain strategic positions in the former province. Along the Danube three independent kingdoms have been established by the once subject nations. Servia received administrative autonomy in 1817, and, in 1826, 105
was granted complete tributary independence. By the Treaty of Berlin 119
she threw off finally Ottoman control, and gained also an extension of territory which is described in another connexion. In 1881, she became the kingdom of Servia, and in 1882 acquired Pirot and certain other places from Bulgaria. Bulgaria was created an autonomous but 119
tributary principality in 1878, and, after the successful revolution at Philippopolis in 1885, was much enlarged by the addition of Eastern 120
Roumelia, which had enjoyed administrative autonomy since 1878, as South Bulgaria. Roumania was formed by the union of the provinces 105
of Moldavia and Wallachia, which were made tributary States in 1858, and, choosing the same ruler, were united in 1861. Her complete inde- 119
pendence was recognised in 1878, and in 1881 she became the kingdom of Roumania. The indomitable Montenegrins, who had long claimed freedom in the security of their mountains, also obtained the definite recognition of their independence in 1878. Montenegro became a kingdom in 1910.

The Treaty of Berlin of July, 1878, which modified the preliminary **119**
Treaty of San Stefano, had so much importance in determining the extent as well as political position of these new States, and forms so prominent a landmark in the history of the Ottoman empire, that its territorial rearrangements demand a separate and connected consideration. By the Treaty of San Stefano, Bulgaria had been formed into an enormous tributary principality. It embraced Eastern Roumelia, a large block of territory east of Adrianople, and a great part of Macedonia itself, with the coast opposite the island of Thasos—thus stretching from the Black Sea to the Aegean—an arrangement which left to Turkey little more than Albania and Constantinople. At Berlin the drastic treatment of the Ottoman empire was modified. The "big Bulgaria" was not formed and the territory added to Bulgaria was restored to the Porte, though Eastern Roumelia was given administrative autonomy. Roumania gained little. She was compelled to restore to Russia a strip of Bessarabia which Russia had surrendered to Moldavia in 1856, but she received, by way of compensation, the Dobrudja with a frontier rectified

to the south. Servia, by the terms of San Stefano, had been increased
to the south-west. At Berlin, this addition was taken away and replaced
by a somewhat larger piece of territory to the south-east, which had, at
San Stefano, been given to Bulgaria. As for Montenegro, the terms of
San Stefano had extended her frontier enormously and given her a sea-
board parallel and equal in length to Lake Skutari. At Berlin, this
sea-board and the other territorial additions were nearly halved. In
1880, however, Montenegro succeeded in extending her diminished
sea-board by the acquisition of Dulcigno in exchange for the Albanian
towns of Gusinje and Plava.

The greater part of the losses of the Ottoman empire have thus
been due to the internal revolutions and other causes which have led to
the creation of new States. But some important cessions have also been
made to the Great Powers in continuation of the process by which,
since the decline of the Ottoman empire began, they have resumed its
108 conquests. By the Treaty of Bucharest, in 1812, Russia obtained
Bessarabia and advanced her frontier to the Pruth and the Lower
Danube. By the Treaty of Adrianople, in 1829, she added some islands
at the mouth of the Danube—her furthest advance in this direction—
and received also a strip of territory in Asia Minor, including the
important city of Achaltsik. By this addition, Russia still further
consolidated her power in the Caucasus, already increased by the cession
of a part of Armenia by Persia at the Treaty of Turkmanchay in 1828.
115 At the conclusion of the Crimean War, in 1856, Russia, by the Peace
of Paris, restored to Turkey the Danube delta obtained in 1829, and to
Moldavia a narrow strip of Bessarabia, thus losing her position on the
119 Danube. At the Treaty of Berlin, Russia recovered this strip of
110 Bessarabia and received Kars and Batoum in the Caucasus. Austria
111 made no acquisitions from Turkey until 1878, when she took over the
administration of Bosnia and Herzegovina. These two provinces
became thereby virtually parts of the Austro-Hungarian empire, though
formal sovereignty was not assumed till 1908. Great Britain restored
Egypt to Ottoman rule in 1815; but she retained the Ionian Islands, as
mentioned above, until 1864, when she presented them to Greece. By
110 the Convention of Cyprus in 1878 she took over the administration of
Cyprus, and in 1882 she intervened in the affairs of Egypt and has
since remained in occupation of that country. Nor is this the sum of
Turkish losses, for, in 1898, the other great Levantine island, Crete,
received autonomy. Yet, in spite of all its losses by conquest, revolu-
tion and occupation, and in spite of the creation of a group of
kingdoms, representing the once subject nations, the Ottoman race
still preserve the seat of their empire in Europe, and govern a large
Christian population in their diminished territories.

109 The union of the Belgic and United Provinces of the Netherlands,
made in 1815, lasted till 1830, when the Belgic revolution resulted in

the creation of a kingdom of Belgium separate from Holland. Between the two States Luxemburg became a cause of dispute. By the Congress of Vienna, Luxemburg had been left in a curious position. It was a member of the Germanic Confederation; but the sovereignty and civil 107
government were vested in the King of the Netherlands, who exercised its vote. The fortress was declared a federal fortress, the appointment of the governor being given to Prussia, which provided the larger part of the garrison. The first arrangement made on the disruption of the union of the Belgic and United Provinces of the Netherlands was that of January, 1831, by which the whole of the duchy of Luxemburg was given to the new kingdom of the Netherlands. The eighteen articles of June virtually reversed this decision. The maintenance of the *status quo*, which these demanded, meant the retention by the Belgians of all Luxemburg except the fortress, and all Limburg except Maestricht. It was finally decided, by the Treaty of November, that Limburg and the east part of Luxemburg should be restored to the diminished kingdom of the Netherlands, while the west part of Luxemburg should remain under Belgian rule—an arrangement to which the Dutch King refused his assent till 1839. Only that part of Luxemburg retained by the Netherlands which included the fortress remained within the Germanic Confederation. On the formation of the North German Confederation, Luxemburg was not included in it, on the ground that it was attached to a foreign Power. But Prussia still maintained her right to garrison its fortress. In May, 1867, an agreement was arrived at, by which Luxemburg was declared an independent State under King William III, but politically separate from Holland, and guaranteed as neutral by the Powers; Prussia was to withdraw her garrison and the King of the Netherlands to destroy the fortifications. In 1866, on the dissolution of the Germanic Confederation, Limburg was incorporated with the Netherlands. Luxemburg retained the position assigned to it in 1867 till 1890, when, by the death of William III, its dynastic tie with the Netherlands was broken. By the Salic Law, Queen Wilhelmina was incapable of succession, and it passed to the next male heir.

Another union made by the Congress of Vienna—that of Norway 141
and Sweden—lasted for ninety years. In June, 1905, the two kingdoms separated by mutual consent.

The expansion of Russia in the nineteenth century was almost un- 108
checked, and her frontiers advanced in every direction. In the north-west, by the acquisition of Finland and the Åland Islands at the Peace of Frederikshamm in 1809, she completed her hold of the eastern Baltic, and her frontiers here have since remained unaltered. Finland still remains an autonomous State, though its constitutional position is a matter of dispute. By the settlement of 1815, the grand duchy of Warsaw, diminished by Posnania, Danzig, East Galicia, and Cracow, was renamed the kingdom of Poland, and handed over to Alexander's

protection. After the unsuccessful rebellion of 1831–2, the position of Poland was changed, and she has now become the "Russian provinces of the Vistula." The frontier is purely conventional and independent of geographical considerations; but it has remained unaltered up to the present day.

Unlike the northern and western frontiers, the south-western has seen continuous change, though little expansion. Religious and national feeling—the Panslavist sentiment—have combined with the political and economic aim of reaching the Mediterranean to make this a region of conflict. In this direction, also, Russia has advanced to the sea—the goal of nearly all her expansion. The Treaty of Bucharest (1812) brought this expansion to the Pruth and the Lower Danube; the Convention of Akkerman (1826) confirmed this; the Treaty of Adrianople
115 (1829) included in it the islands of the Danube delta. This last acquisition was lost at the Treaty of Paris (1856), together with a narrow
119 strip of Bessarabia on the left bank of the Danube. At the Congress of Berlin (1878), the strip of Bessarabia was recovered and the frontier advanced to the position of 1812. The south-eastern frontier has been no less changing, and Persia, the Ottoman empire, and the Cossacks have all lost territory to Russia. Conquests in the neighbourhood of Daghestan, carried Russian dominion along the Caspian. The Treaty of Turkmanchay (1828) deprived Persia of the khanates of Erivan and Nakhitchevan, and gave to Russia the sole right of navigation on the Caspian Sea. In the following year, the Treaty of Adrianople, between Russia and the Turks, confirmed the Russian possession of Anapa, Poti, and part of the pashalik of Akhaltsikh. In 1834, trifling readjustments were made in the Kars-Akhiskha district. In spite of the capture of their great fortress, in 1845, the Caucasian Cossacks kept up a stubborn resistance to Russian aggression. But, in 1859, the southern highlands in the district of Daghestan were occupied by Russia, and, after five years' further fighting, the Circassian or Kuban district
110 was conquered. The Congress of Berlin, in 1878, rectified the southern boundary of the Caucasian region. Turkey finally ceded Kars to Russia, together with Ardahan and Batoum, which was to remain a free port. The preliminary Treaty of San Stefano had also arranged that the fortress of Bayazid and a valuable strip of territory on the trade route to Trebizond should be ceded to Russia. But the Congress of Berlin refused to ratify this. Since 1878, the south-eastern frontier of Russia has remained unchanged. Russia has, in a sense, drawn the region of the Caucasus into Europe, but has not used it as a base of expansion into Asia Minor or Asia. Her conquests east of the Caspian will be mentioned in another connexion.

B. GREATER EUROPE.

In studying the political changes which have occurred outside of 140
Europe in the course of the nineteenth century we have to trace, first, the expansion of the United States and the political formation of Latin America; next, the uninterrupted growth of the British empire in all continents—in particular, the formation of the British empire in India, and, parallel with it, the expansion of Russia in northern and central Asia; thirdly, the general extension of colonial activity which has brought many new Powers into the colonial world and led to the partition of Africa and the Pacific Islands and the penetration of the East by European influence.

Since 1820, the United States have expanded north and south to the 72
Pacific Coast, and have added a small colonial dominion. First came the definition of their northern frontier with British North America. 127
In 1842, by the Webster-Ashburton Treaty, the boundary between New Brunswick and Maine, which had been in doubt since the Peace of Versailles, was at last arranged. The United States gained most of the land in dispute, and were left with a frontier which projected so far into New Brunswick as to impede the direct connexion between the Canadas and the maritime Provinces. In 1846, Oregon was divided between the two countries along the 49th parallel from the Rockies to the Pacific, Vancouver Isle being left to the English. This partition, however, still left uncertain the ownership of the islands in the strait that divides Vancouver from the mainland of the United States. In 1872, by arbitration, the Juan de Fuca channel was fixed as the boundary between Canada and the United States. The south-western expansion 71
of the United States was continued in 1845, when Texas, a Mexican State, which had established its independence of Mexico in 1837, was admitted into the Union. A war with Mexico resulted, at the conclusion of which, by the Treaty of Guadaloupe Hidalgo, 1848, Mexico recognised the Rio Grande as the boundary of Texas, and ceded New Mexico and Upper California to the United States, which thus came into possession of an enormous area of country, including the present States of California, New Mexico, New Arizona, Utah, and parts of Wyoming and Colorado. The process of expansion in the south-west was completed by the purchase of a tract of some 45,000 square miles south of the river Gila, which gave to the United States an improved frontier in this quarter. This completed the continuous expansion of American territory. In addition the United States in 1867 purchased Alaska from Russia, whence arose another boundary dispute with Great Britain. The boundary between 127
Alaska and Canada was fixed by an Anglo-Russian treaty in 1825. But it was doubtful whether that treaty intended the boundary to follow

the general contour of the coast or pass round the heads of the inlets.
By arbitration, in 1903, the latter alternative was decided upon, and
the United States thus gained control of the main sea approach to the
140 Klondyke gold-fields. Outside of America, the United States added
a colonial dominion in Hawaii and Guam, in 1898, the Philippines and
75 Porto Rico, taken from Spain, at the Peace of Paris, in the same year,
and the Samoan island of Tutuila and its dependencies, in 1900.

With the progress of settlement new States were formed: Missouri
in 1821, Arkansas in 1836, Michigan in 1837, Texas and Florida in
1845, Iowa in 1846, Wisconsin in 1848, California in 1850, Minnesota
in 1858, Oregon in 1859, Kansas in 1861, Nevada in 1864, Nebraska in
1867, Colorado in 1876, Washington, Montana, North Dakota and
South Dakota in 1889, Idaho and Wyoming in 1890, Utah in 1896,
and Oklahoma in 1907, Arizona and New Mexico still remaining
73 Territories. In the course of its expansion the existence of the United
States was thrown into jeopardy by the division of the country on the
question of slavery. In 1861 the southern States seceded and formed
a new Confederation, which included Virginia, the two Carolinas, Tennessee, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Arkansas.
After a struggle of four years, 1861–5, the new Confederation succumbed
to the northern States and its members were one by one readmitted to
the Union. During the struggle, a part of Virginia, which adhered to
the North, was separated from the remainder and formed into the State
of West Virginia (1863).

134, Latin America has been gradually taking shape during the course of
135 the nineteenth century. Mexico has lost territory to the United States:
71 first, by the secession of Texas in 1836, which entered the Union in 1845;
secondly, by the cession in 1848 of California and New Mexico and the
sale of a piece of territory south of the river Gila in 1853. In Central
America, half-hearted attempts at federation failed, and six separate
States were formed, viz. Honduras, Nicaragua, San Salvador, Costa Rica,
Guatemala and Panama. Panama was at first a member of the United
States of Colombia. In 1855 and 1862 it obtained a large degree of
autonomy, but remained in the federation until 1903, when it definitely
seceded. In that year, also, it granted to the United States a belt of
land for the construction of the Panama Canal. Colombia itself divided
into three republics, in 1830—New Granada, Venezuela, and Ecuador;
in 1863 New Granada took the name of United States of Colombia.
Peru was divided, in 1825, by the formation of Upper Peru into the
Republic of Bolivia. Bolivia had, until 1883, a frontier on the Pacific,
but, by the Peace of Ancon in that year, it lost to Chile the province of
Tarapaca and parts of two other provinces. Chile grew by this addition
from Bolivia and after disputes with the Argentine. The dispute between
Chile and the Argentine was settled in 1881, when both shores of the
Straits of Magellan were given to Chile, and the boundary between the

two States was fixed northwards from lat. 52 "along the highest crest of the Cordillera which divide the waters." Both Venezuela and Brazil have had disputes with British Guiana, which have been settled by arbitration. The South American States have not yet attained a fixed form, for a part of Ecuador still remains in dispute.

In the West Indies the principal change has been the disappearance of the power of Spain. In 1898 Spain lost Cuba, whose independence she recognised, and surrendered Porto Rico to the United States. Her part of Santo Domingo established its independence in 1820, merged itself in Hayti in 1822, freed itself in 1844, passed back to her in 1861, and became once more independent in 1865.

The expansion of the British Empire has proceeded with great
rapidity since 1815. In North America, the limits of her possessions **126**
have been fixed by the series of agreements with the United States
already referred to. Out of the group of colonies which she possessed 101
on the continent the Dominion of Canada has been formed, by a
steady process of union. In 1840, Upper and Lower Canada were 127
united; in 1858, British Columbia was constituted; in 1867 the two Canadas, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick entered into a confederation, which Prince Edward's Island joined in 1870, and British Columbia in 1871, and which purchased the territories of the Hudson Bay Company in 1869, thus gaining a transcontinental extent. In this north-western territory of Canada have been formed the new provinces of Manitoba, in 1870, and Saskatchewan and Alberta, in 1904. Newfoundland remains outside of the Dominion. In the West Indies, dominion has been neither lost nor gained. In South America, a long dispute between British Guiana and Venezuela was settled by arbitration in 1899, and
a dispute between that colony and Brazil in 1904. In Australasia, **128**
the first settlement was made at Sydney in 1788, and the colony of New South Wales was formed. Tasmania was proclaimed in 1825,
Western Australia in 1829, South Australia in 1836, New Zealand in 129
1841, Victoria in 1851, and Queensland in 1859. The six Australian colonies united to form the Commonwealth of Australia in 1900. New Zealand remains a separate Dominion.

In South Africa, advancing from the Dutch colony of the Cape of **133**
Good Hope acquired in 1806, and ceded by the Dutch in 1814, Great Britain has gained a large dominion reaching into Central Africa, and including the new colonies and dominions of Natal, the Transvaal, the Orange Free State, Rhodesia, and British Central Africa. The Transvaal and the Orange Free State were formed by the trekking of the Dutch from the Cape, after 1836. The independence of the Transvaal was recognised by the Sand River Convention, in 1852, and that of the Orange Free State by the Convention of Bloemfontein, in 1854. The Transvaal was annexed in 1877, to be granted independence again in 1881, and both States were finally annexed in 1900. Meantime, the Cape of

Good Hope was steadily enlarged from the Fish River to the Keiskama in 1819, and to the Kei and in the north-east by the inclusion of Queen Adelaide Province, temporarily in 1831–6, and finally in 1846—though the territory between the Keiskama and the Kei, called British Kaffraria, was not annexed to the Cape Colony until 1865—by Basutoland from 1871 to 1884; by further additions from Kaffraria in 1876–9; by Griqualand West with Kimberley in 1880; by Walfisch Bay, annexed by the British 1878, in 1884; by the remainder of British Kaffraria to the frontiers of Natal in 1884–7; and by the southern part of Bechuanaland, annexed by the British in 1885, in 1895. Natal was formed in 1844, and attached to the Cape till 1856. To it Zululand, which had been brought under British protection in 1879, and declared British territory in 1887, was added in 1897, St Lucia Bay having been annexed in 1884. Rhodesia, a great territory north of the Transvaal, was acquired by Cecil Rhodes, and transferred to the British South Africa Company 1888–90. Its frontier on the south was fixed at the Limpopo, by agreement with the Transvaal in 1890, and on the north-east, by agreement with Portugal in 1891, was made to include Mashonaland. In 1910, the four South African colonies—the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal—formed a single State as the Union of South Africa.

122 Perhaps the greatest of the imperial efforts of Great Britain has been the formation of her Indian empire. From the beginnings made in the eighteenth century, she has advanced with little interruption, until today the whole of India and Burma is either under her direct administration, or, where native States remain, under her control; and its frontiers are flanked by buffer States whose political relations she supervises.
64 The acquisitions made by Clive laid the foundations of her power in northern India. Warren Hastings obtained Benares from Oudh in 1775, Nagore from Tanjore, and Guntur from the Nizam in 1778, and, by the Treaty of Salbai, the islands of Salsette and Elephanta,
99 in 1782. In 1792, Cornwallis took from the Sultan of Mysore one-half of his dominions, of which the British retained the Malabar coast, with Calicut. In 1799, Mysore was once more partitioned. The central portion of the State was handed over to a native Hindu ruler. Parts were given to the Nizam and the Mahrathas. The coast up to the Portuguese possession of Goa, including Mangalore, was annexed by Great Britain. In 1800, the principality of Tanjore, and in 1801 the Carnatic, were placed under direct British administration, and thus the Madras Presidency was formed almost as it has remained until the present time. In 1801, Oudh surrendered Rohilkhand and the districts of Allahabad and Korah. The conquest of Mysore, in 1799, secured to the British an uninterrupted dominion from east to west of the peninsula as well as the control of the sea-coast in southern India. It left no serious opponent of British power in India, save only the Mahratha confederacy, whose chiefs

ruled at Poona, Nagpur, Gwalior, Indore, and Baroda, and whose united dominions stretched from Mysore to the Jumna, and from Kuttack to the Gulf of Kutch. Occupying the centre of India, they contended for dominion in north and south—in Hindustan and the Deccan. The British acquisitions from the Mahrathas began in 1802, when the Peshwa of Poona, by the Treaty of Bassein, came under British protection and ceded some districts in Bundelkhand. After a struggle with the other Mahratha princes, Sindhia ceded all his territories north of the Jumna, the Rajah of Nagpur Kuttack and his other lands in Orissa, as well as Berar to the Nizam, the Gaekwar Ahmadabad and his part of Gujerat. By these additions the British made themselves the strongest Power amongst the States and races of India—the only Power capable of giving to it unity and to its peoples protection. Mysore had been destroyed, the Mahratha confederacy broken, the Ganges valley brought under British control. Oudh was encircled by British territory, and the British frontier marched with that of Sindhia in Upper India. The British possessions in Madras were linked up with their possessions in Bengal, British territory stretched north-west from Bengal to the mountains, with a frontier resting on the Jumna, and almost the whole of the Indian littoral was under British control. The great Mohammadan States, Haidarabad, Oudh, and Mysore, were dependent. But, while the British **122**
had been made supreme in India, they had found no tenable frontier—no satisfactory limit to their expansion. Moreover, their position was weak. The Bombay Presidency was cut off from the others. The frontiers of their possessions were extensive, and communication was difficult between the various parts. The attempt to limit conquest, to establish a balance of power, and to separate British India from native India, failed. In central India no stable political situation had been established. On the northern frontiers of British territory the Nepalese encroached. To secure this northern frontier and to resettle central India was the work of Hastings. By the Treaty of Segauli, in 1815, the British annexed the north-west corner of Nepal, and brought Sikkim under their protection, thus advancing on the south-east and south-west into the outer ranges of the Himalayas, the hill country that overhangs Rohilkhand and the North-West Provinces. Simla was among their acquisitions on this occasion. In 1817–8, wars with the Pindaris and the Mahrathas enabled the British to make a settlement of central and south-western India. In 1818, the dominions of the Peshwa were annexed to the Bombay Presidency. Ajmir, Asigarh, and a part of Gujerat were taken from Sindhia; Holkar surrendered territory round the river Tapti, and the Rajah of Nagpur nearly all his territories north of the Mahanadi and the Nerbudda. This great settlement, which crushed the Mahratha Power, the only possible rival of the British in India, marks a very definite point in the formation of the British dominion. Since, in 1815, Ceylon had been definitely ceded by the

Dutch, and Mauritius by the French, European rivalry was no longer a danger. The whole sea line of India was in British hands. The contest with the native States was ended—all the minor principalities of Rajputana and of the Mahrathas recognised the British suzerainty. The Deccan was under British control, as well as Hindustan from the frontiers of the Punjab east to the frontiers of Burma. The British empire was firmly established; but it was to be further consolidated by Dalhousie, 1848–56, and its expansion east and west was to continue.

Between 1818 and 1848 a number of acquisitions were made: in 1820, the coast between Kolaba and Goa; in 1822, Bijapur (near Sholopur) and Ahmadnagar from the Nizam; in 1830, Mysore (until 1881, when it was restored to native government); in 1834, Coorg; in 1841, Kurnool; in the same year, the Assam Duars, lying on the east of the Bhutan Duars, and comprising about one-third of them; and, in 1843, Kolaba. After the first Sikh War, in 1845, the Jalandhar Doab between the Sutlej and Ravi was annexed, the Punjab brought under British protection, and Kashmir made an autonomous State in alliance with Great Britain. But it was the work of Dalhousie to create substantially the India of today. By annexing the Punjab, in 1849, he brought British India into touch with Afghanistan, and so indirectly into touch with Russia; while, on the east, by occupying Sikkim in 1850, he brought it into touch with Tibet and China. He added the lower districts of the Irrawaddy in 1852, which was to lead on to the conquest of Upper Burma. Within the interior of India, he annexed Satara near Bombay in 1848, Jhansi, a Mahratha State, in northern India, in 1853, and the great central tract of India known as Nagpur, in 1854, whose territories constitute nearly four-fifths of the present Central Provinces. In 1853, Berar, or the Assigned Districts, was handed over by the Nizam. The last and greatest of his acquisitions was Oudh, annexed in 1856. The work of Dalhousie thus gave greater unity to British territory in India, and extended it east and west. The results of the Mutiny confirmed the long process of conquest and consolidation, and carried it to its logical issue in the transference of India definitely to the Crown of Great Britain. The Moghul Emperor disappeared from Delhi, the last Mahratha Peshwa from Cawnpore, and the East India Company, in whose name the great work had been done, surrendered the government of India directly to the Crown. It was a natural corollary of this that, in 1877, the British Empire of India was proclaimed.

Since 1858 there have been few annexations within the Indian peninsula. The Government of India has been occupied mainly with the problem of defending the British position and possessions by securing strong frontiers to India and encircling them with a belt of protected States. The interior acquisitions have been the Panch Mahals (near Baroda), 1860, Lalitpur (south of Jhansi) and the district to the south

of Bhutan known as the Ambari Fallakotta, 1859-60, and the Bengal Duars, of which the eastern part had been annexed in 1841, in 1865. The external acquisitions have been much more extensive.

The protection of the British dominions in India has involved, necessarily, the protection of the routes of communication with it and the consequent annexation of various strategic points on those routes.
In addition to Gibraltar, acquired in 1713, and Malta acquired in 1802, 100
the British Government in 1815 retained the Cape of Good Hope,
Ceylon, and Mauritius, and occupied Ascension Island. The Suez Canal 132
was opened in 1869, and Great Britain seized an opportunity in 1877 to obtain a financial interest in it, which led on to her joint occupation of Egypt with France in 1882; whence arose the British Protectorate of Egypt recognised by France in 1904, and the conquest of the Egyptian
Sudan in 1896-9. Cyprus was taken into British occupation in 1878; 110
a protectorate was declared over Somaliland at the mouth of the Red 130
Sea in 1884, which has been maintained, though the interior was abandoned in 1910. Aden, just opposite, was acquired in 1838, and
Perim Island in 1857. From Aden to the Persian Gulf, Great Britain 124
exercises a certain police supervision, and over the Persian Gulf she
definitely declared a protectorate in 1903. In 1907 Russia recognised 124
her prior interests in south-eastern Persia. Thus, British communications with India have been guarded by a line of possessions and protectorates.

The expansion of British rule on the north-western frontier of India **124**
may next be considered. The great colonising movement which Russia has carried on from Moscow into Central Asia led the British, early in the nineteenth century, to look beyond the actual frontiers of India and to interest themselves in Sind, the Punjab, Afghanistan, and Persia. The mountainous country of Afghanistan, over whose historic passes conquerors and traders have descended into India, had by its geographical position and its strategic importance a great interest to the British. The attempt made, from 1837 to 1842, to form an alliance with or to
conquer Afghanistan ended in disaster, but led to the annexation of Sind 122
in 1843, by which British dominion was established on the Lower Indus, a base acquired for further operations in north-western India, and the
whole Indian littoral brought into British hands. The final annexation 122
of the Punjab in 1849 carried the British frontier to the Afghan hills.
Meanwhile, Russia advanced across the Kirghiz steppes, and gained 136
control of the routes of communication with Central Asia. She came into touch with Afghanistan and Persia on the west, at the moment when the British came into contact with Afghanistan and Baluchistan on the east. The Russian, like the British, empire sought a secure frontier. The dominions that Russia annexed in Central Asia were as large as British India, though their population was small. She occupied Tashkend in 1864, Samarkand in 1868, Khiva, virtually, in 1873.

122 In 1876, the British, by the Treaty of Jacobabad, came to an agreement with Baluchistan. By this, Baluchistan with its passes up to the Persian frontier passed under British control, and the British established themselves at Quetta. It was a protection of the southern part of the north-western frontier of India. A war with Afghanistan, in 1878–80, secured to the British the control of the Afghan passes into India, and brought Afghanistan under British protection. In 1885–7 a boundary commission settled in conjunction with Russia the north-western frontier of Afghanistan. Between Afghanistan and India, from Baluchistan to Chitral, along the spurs of the hills, was a zone of territory occupied by tribes who owned the suzerainty of the Ameer. In 1893, this territory was brought under British control by agreement with Afghanistan, and, in 1895, Chitral was annexed. In 1907, the two rival Powers in Central Asia made a settlement of their differences. The integrity of Persia was recognised, but it was divided into three spheres—a northern, which included the more important provinces and cities, in which the British would seek no political concessions; a southern, adjoining the frontiers of Afghanistan and Baluchistan, from which Russia would similarly be excluded, and a central, open to both Powers. Afghanistan was left as a buffer State under British protection, and Russia was excluded from it. Tibet was recognised as under the sovereignty of China, it being agreed that neither Power was to seek influence there, though the British retained certain limited rights under the Treaty of Lhassa and the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1904. In 1902, an alteration of the Tibetan frontier gave the British some 350 square miles.

125 The expansion on the eastern frontier of India has borne some similarity to that on the west. On the west, Sind and the Punjab have been acquired, Baluchistan and Afghanistan have become protectorates, and an agreement has been made with Russia as to spheres of influence and frontiers. Similarly, on the east, Assam and Burma have been annexed, the Shan States have become protectorates, Siam has been neutralised, and an agreement reached with France as to frontiers. But, while on the west the British have not extended their conquests outside of India, on the east they have added quite a new region in Indo-China. Into this region they advanced first in 1826. By the Treaty of Yandabu, they acquired the kingdom of Assam, with Manipur and Kachar, and the provinces of Arakan and Tenasserim, with Martaban and Moulmein. The King of Ava retained the valley of the Irrawaddy. This gave the British all the Burmese sea-board, except the province of Pegu, and effectually secured their eastern frontier, which had hitherto been the Brahmaputra valley, except where they had gone beyond it in the province of Chittagong. In 1852, a further advance was made, and the province of Pegu at the mouth of the Irrawaddy, with Rangoon, was acquired. It was an important acquisition. It gave the British the whole sea coast of Burma, whence it was easy to advance up stream to

Mandalay. In 1886 this advance was made, and Upper Burma was annexed. It embraced a wide territory from the Irrawaddy to the Salwin. Meanwhile, the French were also established in Indo-China. In 1859, they occupied Saigon; in 1862, the provinces of Saigon, Mytho, and Bunhoa in Cochin China, and the islands of Pulo Condore; in 1863, they proclaimed a protectorate over Cambodia, and, in 1867, occupied the three provinces of western Cochin China to the south-west of Saigon. In 1863–5 they made conquests in Tonkin, and by the Treaty of Hué with Annam, in 1884, and that of Tientsin with China, in 1885, they brought Annam and Tonkin under their protection.

After threatening war in 1893, the French gained a better frontier with Siam, which ceded a large territory, so that the Mekong became a French river. By agreement with the English, in 1896, Siam was divided into three spheres, of which the eastern was to be the French sphere of influence, the western the British, and the central, the basin of the Menam, to be neutral. The dismemberment of Siam was thereby prevented, and the British secured their protectorate over the provinces adjoining their frontier. By a further treaty between Great Britain and France, in 1907, Siam ceded to France Battambang, Siem-reap, and Sisophon, in return for Dansai and Kratt, as well as all the islands situated to the south of Chemling including Koh-Kutt. A further agreement placed the Malay States of Kelantan, Trĕngganu, and Kedah under British influence. Thus, a zone of protected or neutral States separates Persia, Russia, China and France from the immediate possession of Great Britain, and forms the real frontier of India.

Within India, France and Portugal still retain a peaceful foothold— **122**
Portugal in Goa, Diu, and Damaun, France in Pondicherry, Karical, Yanaon, Mahé, and Chandernagore. The Danes sold their possessions of Tranquebar and Serampur to Great Britain in 1845.

The British share in the partition of the Pacific Islands and of 140
Africa will be mentioned later. Of strategic possessions necessary to her maritime power she acquired the Straits Settlements, in 1785–1819, Singapore, in 1819, Aden, in 1838, Hong-Kong, in 1841, Cyprus, in 1878, Wei-hai-wei, in 1898, while she ceded Heligoland to Germany,
in 1890. In south-eastern Asia, she expanded her power by acquiring 139, 140
Labuan, in 1846, the Malay States, in 1874, North Borneo, in 1878–81, a part of New Guinea, in 1884, and Sarawak and Brunei, in 1888. The rapid growth and formation of this far extended and heterogeneous empire resting on maritime power is the greatest of the changes in the colonial world in the nineteenth century.

Of the other great colonial Powers of earlier centuries, Russia alone **136**
was continuously active during the nineteenth century. In Central Asia she advanced her frontier southwards to meet Persia and Afghanistan, which now form buffer States between the Russian and British empires in Asia. In the Far East she advanced uninterruptedly until, attempting

to encroach on China and to find a better outlet to the sea, she was repulsed by Japan. The proximity of northern Asia to Russia, its geographical character and its scanty population, on the one hand, and Russia's need of a defensible frontier, of new markets, and of more territory for her growing population, on the other, explain the ease, the continuity, and the vast extent of these conquests. In the later eighteenth century, Russia was extending her control over the Kirghiz hordes west of the Urals. In 1822, they were placed within the sphere of the Governors of Orenburg and Western Siberia. In 1842, the Amu Darya was brought under Russian influence; by 1853, the Sir Darya; by 1865, all the territory between the Aral Sea and Issik Kul. Thus eastern Turkestan was subdued. In 1868, Bokhara ceded the district of Zarafshan, with the important town of Samarkand, and became itself a dependent State. In 1873, Khiva was conquered, and, in 1876, Khokand was made a province of Turkestan under its ancient name Ferghana. Thus, Russian dominion has been extended almost round the Caspian. Meanwhile, in 1870, Russia occupied the Kuldja district of China, but evacuated the eastern portion of it in 1881. In that year, also, the Turkoman Tekkes on the north of the Afghan frontier were subdued and Western Turkomania was annexed, the boundaries with Persia being arranged by treaty with Persia. In 1884, the Turkoman tribes round about Merv were coaxed into obedience. Difficulties about the Afghan frontier were settled by the Anglo-Russian boundary commission in 1885, which gave to Russia the greater part of the district which she disputed with Afghanistan, including the oasis of Penjdeh, and by another Anglo-Russian commission of 1895, which settled disputed questions in the
124 Pamirs. A general settlement of the political position in central Asia was made by the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907 already referred to, which maintained the integrity of Persia, and recognised the predominant interests of Russia in the northern provinces, but closed to her Afghanistan and Tibet. Of Russian expansion in eastern Asia we shall speak in another connexion.

130 An increased interest in colonisation shown by the various Great Powers has led, in recent years, to the extension of European sovereignty over the greater part of Africa and the Pacific. Apart from the movements of the Dutch in South Africa, and of the French in Algeria, there was little extension of European colonisation in Africa between 1815 and 1875. The British made little of their West African settlements. But they extended their possessions in Sierra Leone in 1861, acquired Lagos in the same year, and consolidated their power on the Gold Coast by the purchase of the Danish forts, in 1850, and of the Dutch, in 1871. The Portuguese acquired Portuguese Guinea and the Bissagos Islands in 1885, St Thomé and Principe in 1879. The French occupation
131 of Algeria began in 1830 with the capture of Algiers. At first restricted to points on the coast, it was gradually extended to include the territory

north of the Atlas Mountains by 1848. Between 1848 and 1870, France extended her dominion to the northern Sahara. In 1881, the Treaty of Bardo with the Bey of Tunis admitted her protectorate over Tunis. Meanwhile, she continued to advance south, and, in 1900, occupied Insalah, Touat, and Gourara on the frontiers of Morocco, which gave her command of the Sahara. In 1884, Germany declared a protectorate
over the coast of Damaraland and Namaqualand, except Walfisch Bay, 130
which the British had annexed in 1878. In the same year she also annexed Togoland and the Cameroons. The action of Germany hastened the partition of Africa. The Berlin Conference called in 1884 recognised the Congo State which King Leopold of Belgium had founded in the basin of the Congo. After this there was a rapid occupation of territory by the various Powers and a constant delimitation of frontiers. In western Africa, on the Senegal, France had been extending her power since 1855. She acquired the Upper Senegal, and in 1881 established a protectorate over the left bank of the Upper Niger. She occupied points on the coast between the existing settlements of the English and Portuguese, and linked these up with her interior possessions, acquiring by 1891 the whole of the Ivory Coast. She overthrew the kingdom of Dahomey and occupied Timbuctu in 1892–4. Thus the French secured the Upper Niger and much of the country within its great bend, and prevented the expansion of the older English and Portuguese settlements from the coast into the interior. From the Lower Niger, the English, by Treaties with Gando and Sokoto in 1885, gained access to the Benue and Lake Chad. The French from the west, the English up the Niger, the Germans from the Cameroons, divided the central Sudan by a series of agreements, 1886–1906. In north-western Africa the largest share has fallen to the French. From the Mediterranean in the north and the Atlantic in the west to Darfur in the east and the Congo, where they first gained a footing in 1839, in the south, their dominion stretches, enveloping the older settlements of other Powers. Morocco remains unconquered, and Liberia, in the south-west of the great bend of Africa, is an independent negro republic. Spain holds Tiris, where she proclaimed the protectorate of Rio Oro in 1884, the English their historic West African settlements, to each of which they have added a small *hinterland*, and the protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria at the lower course of the Niger, in which Lagos is now included. The Germans have territory in Togoland and the Cameroons, and Portugal has still a foothold on the coast between Cape Roxo and the river Cajet. Otherwise, the vast interior and the remainder of the coast has passed to the French. In eastern Africa, the Germans, in 1885, acquired territory in Zanzibar, where also the English established claims. By a series of agreements the dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar and the *hinterland* passed to these two Powers. In 1886, the Sultan's territories were confined to a narrow strip of coast, of parts of which both Powers

obtained leases. In 1888, Germany acquired a lease of the Sultan's territory from the Rovuma to the Umba, and in 1890 bought the territory leased to her. She surrendered her claims to the coast between Witu and the river Jub, giving up all claims north of the British boundary at the Umba. The northern limit of her territory was carried from the Victoria Nyanza to the Congo State, thus excluding her from the Upper Nile, and a line was drawn on the south between Lake Nyassa and Lake Tanganyika, dividing her possessions from British Central Africa. The British Government declared a protectorate over the islands of Pemba and Zanzibar, in 1890. The Upper Nile fell mainly into the hands of the British, who acquired Uganda, in 1890–4, conquered the Egyptian Sudan, in 1898, and thus prevented the French from extending thither their west African empire. In 1894, the British leased a tract of territory, the Lado enclave, to King Leopold II, and thus brought the Congo State also to the Nile, which territory on the death of King Leopold returned to the British. In the basin of the Congo, the Congo State was formed in 1884. By conquering the Arabs in Central Africa, in 1890–3, and by a series of astute diplomatic agreements, King Leopold steadily expanded its frontiers. In 1908, it
133 was transferred to the kingdom of Belgium. In south Africa, the British advanced from the Cape Colony to the Upper Zambesi, and, west of Lake Nyassa, north to Lake Tanganyika. The Portuguese dominions of Angola in the west and Mozambique in the east, though they have been enlarged, were thus separated. In 1875 the Portuguese received Delagoa Bay, which was in dispute with the British. An agreement of 1891 fixed the frontiers of Portuguese and British territory inland. German south-west Africa has gained a considerable *hinterland* and at one point reaches the Zambesi. Its frontiers were fixed by agreements with England in 1885 and 1890, and with Portugal in 1896. On the Red Sea France established herself at Obok in 1862 and 1883, Italy at the Bay of Assab in 1870 and 1882, whence she has expanded to Obok, and established the dependency of Eretrea. Abyssinia remains independent. Somaliland was divided between England and Italy. The British protectorate over Somaliland was declared in 1884; Italy acquired her territory in 1889. Thus, save for Morocco, Liberia, and Abyssinia, the whole of Africa has passed under European control.
131 Even in Morocco, the principal seaports, since 1906, have admitted French or Spanish or Franco-Spanish garrisons.

139 The recent partition of the Pacific Islands began with the annexation by France of Tahiti and the Marquesas in 1842, and of New Caledonia in 1853. The British annexed Fiji in 1874, and in 1887 established a joint control of the New Hebrides with France. The United States appeared in 1878, when they acquired Pago Pago in the Samoas, Germany, in 1884, when she annexed parts of northern New Guinea. In 1885 and 1886, Germany, France, and Great Britain came to a

general agreement as to their respective spheres of influence. The German sphere included a large area in Micronesia and western Melanesia, in proximity to the Dutch Indies, and including the Carolines, Marshalls, part of the Solomons, and northern New Guinea. The French claimed a sphere of influence in Melanesia, of which New Caledonia was the centre, and another in Polynesia, of which the Society Islands were the centre. The English sphere extended from south-east Melanesia and Micronesia over Polynesia, almost enveloping the French. In 1892, Great Britain annexed the Gilbert and Ellice Islands; in 1893 the Southern Solomons; in 1898, Santa Cruz and the Swallow group. In 1900, she established a protectorate over the Tonga Islands; in the same year she obtained Choiseul, Isabel, with the islands in Bougainville Straits, and Lord Howe's group was transferred by treaty from Germany. In 1902 and in 1906 she renewed her joint control of the New Hebrides with France. The Manihiki and Cook Islands were placed under the government of New Zealand in 1902. The United States annexed Hawaii in 1898; and, in 1899 (Great Britain relinquishing her claims), they divided the Samoas with Germany. In 1899, Germany bought the Spanish rights in the Carolines and Pelews.

In the Far East, the record of political change has been different, and, while it presents some likeness, offers also a great contrast to the changes which we have just narrated. There has been the same steady pressure of advancing Europe; but the resistance of the Asiatic Powers has been much stronger and more successful, and the uprising of an Asiatic State—the Japanese empire—in a manner unique in modern history has
checked the expansion of Europe. While the commercial penetration 138
of China has progressed slowly throughout the century, her actual territorial losses have been small. Almost inaccessible to most of the Powers of Europe, except by the sea, and strong in her sea-board provinces, she has maintained the bulk of her empire intact, though a number of ports have been opened, and some ceded, to the aggressive
importunity of Europe. In 1841 Great Britain acquired Hong-Kong, 140
which was confirmed to her by the Treaty of Nankin in 1842. To this she added, in 1860, a portion of the township of Kowloon, and, in 1898, a further portion of the Chinese coast opposite Hong-Kong, to increase the
security of the colony. Over Sikkim she established a protectorate in 122
1850, though it was not acknowledged by China until 1890. On the 125
frontiers of Burma, she ceded Munglem and Kwanghung to China in 1894; but, after China had, in the following year, ceded a portion of this territory to France, Great Britain obtained Kokang and Wanting as compensation in 1897. When Russia leased Port Arthur and Talienwan in 1898, Great Britain leased Wei-hai-wei, a strong position on the other side of the Gulf of Pechili, for so long a time as Russia should keep Port Arthur—and she still retains it. Other Powers also have had their shares.
France, as has been already explained, took Annam and Tonkin in 1884, 125

Laos in 1893, and leased Kwang-chow-wan in 1898; in which year, also,
136 Germany leased Kiaochau. But Russia, with her long contiguous frontier, naturally attempted the most; and her field of operations lay on the north-east provinces. From the barren regions of Kamschatka she moved southwards, in the nineteenth century. She gained control of the mouth of the Amur and of part of Saghalin Island, in 1854. By the Treaty of Aigun, in 1858, and a further convention, in 1860, she definitely acquired all the land on the left bank of the Amur and the sea-board so far south as the Tumen. Thus her frontiers touched Korea, and her territories half encircled Manchuria. Vladivostok was then founded at the most south-easterly point of the Russian empire. In 1867 Russia sold Alaska to the United States, and thus withdrew from North America, where she had acquired an extensive coast-line in competition with the Hudson's Bay Company; but her southward advance in Asia continued. In 1867, she improved her position in Saghalin Island, and in 1875 acquired the whole, in exchange for her claims in the two most southerly of the Kurile Islands. Her outlet to the sea in the ports of Nicholaievsk and Vladivostok, icebound for a part of the year, was inadequate for the development of the vast territory she had acquired; and she turned her eyes to the Gulf of Pechili, and sought concessions in the great northern province of China, Manchuria, and the dependent kingdom of Korea
137 with its excellent harbours. But the rise of Japan had created a new situation. To Japan, owing to her geographical situation and expanding population, Korea was a first line of defence and a great field of commercial and industrial interests. A competition between the two Powers ensued. Japan, in 1895, in the Treaty of Shimonoseki, took from China the Liao-Tung peninsula, Manchuria's and north-eastern Asia's best outlet to the sea, Formosa and the Pescadores Islands, and, in addition, established the independence of Korea; but she was compelled by the protests of Russia, Germany, and France to restore the Liao-Tung peninsula to China. In 1898, Russia acquired Port Arthur and Talienwan, and, in 1900, she occupied Manchuria. She thus offered a strong barrier to Japanese expansion, and planted herself in a commanding position against China. By the Treaty of Portsmouth, 1905, which ended the Russo-Japanese War, Russia evacuated Manchuria, which was restored to China, and surrendered the Liao-Tung peninsula, and the southern half of Saghalin Island, to Japan. Korea was placed under the control of Japan, and was annexed to the Japanese empire in 1910. Thus rapidly, Japan gained an extensive territory on the mainland of the continent, and terminated an episode which her success has rendered unique in the history of European colonisation.

The point to which this brief summary has been brought offers no natural break in the history of territorial change. Both in Europe, and in the Greater Europe extended over the globe which Europe has formed,

there has been throughout modern history an unceasing flux of power, with its consequent transference of territories and rearrangements of frontiers. No political equilibrium has yet been reached, nor any lasting balance of power established. So long as some States rise in wealth, population and efficiency, while others decline or remain stationary, so long, in a system of competing States, formed on no fixed principles, there must be constant disturbance in the balance of real power, leading to transfers of political sovereignty. It is not within the scope of this historical sketch to discuss present political tendencies; but it finds a natural conclusion in a brief description of the position to which this long series of changes has led. Europe presents today a form which it has not previously borne in modern history. It consists of a group of States, which, though they do not coincide with its geographical or ethnographical divisions very exactly, yet bear strong marks of having been formed under their influence. As compared with other continents, the number of States is very large for its area and population, partly because of the operation of the principle of nationality, which has divided more States than it has united, and partly because of the subjugation of other continents to its influence. The States of Europe are the product not only of its racial and geographical divisions, but also of the political instincts of its peoples, and of the hopes, fears and precautions of the more powerful members of its system. For the 141
first time in our survey of Europe as a whole we see a German empire, possessing a real unity, and exercising a political influence commensurate with the numbers, wealth and civilisation of the German people. Occupying the north-central plains of Europe and the greater part of the valleys of the Vistula, Oder, Elbe, Weser, Ems, and Rhine, it finds its sea outlet in the Baltic and the North Sea. It embraces neither the whole German people, nor all the territory which, in north-central Europe, once owned the sway of the Holy Roman Empire. Outside of Europe, its great activities are feebly represented in the unimportant islands of the Pacific and the undeveloped sections of Africa which are its sole colonial possessions. The train of events which began in the connexion of the Burgundian inheritance with the Crown of Spain ended in the complete detachment from the German empire of an extensive strip of land on the North Sea surrounding the mouth of the Rhine. Today this rich territory forms two States—Holland, with her national distinctness, her tradition of independence and her ancient colonial dominion in the West Indies and in the great islands of the Malay archipelago, and Belgium, the creation of the national spirit and of diplomacy, owing her existence, her wealth, and her colonial empire in Africa to the industries and the politics of the nineteenth century—both of them small States, whose independence helps to preserve the balance of power. Adjoining Belgium and the German empire, but far from the Rhine, is France, with her unity unimpaired, weaker on her eastern

frontier than Louis XIV found her, stronger in the south-east than the Revolution left her. Outside of Europe, the French race is established in a part of Canada; but the French colonial dominion lies in north-western Africa and the south-eastern corner of Asia. Through a century of political stress, the Iberian peninsula has preserved its political divisions unchanged. But neither Spain nor Portugal retains any dominion in America, the seat of their colonial power, though their tongue and race remain in the South American nations over which they formerly held sway. Portugal still retains parts of Africa and certain points in the East; but the first and strongest of colonial empires, the Spanish, has almost altogether passed away. Italy, like Germany, appears as a single State, for the first time in modern history. She has strong natural boundaries in sea and mountains and embraces nearly all the Italian people. In Africa, she has made the beginnings of a colonial dominion. Switzerland holds the mountainous heart of Europe. In central Europe, the Austrian empire comprises a compacter body of territory than the Habsburgs ever ruled, but preserves the composite character of their empire. German, Czech, Magyar, and Slav are the chief among the many races united within its bounds. For so large a State, the outlet to the sea, on the rocky coast of the eastern Adriatic, is insufficient, hard to defend, and difficult of access. In the Balkan peninsula, a group of States, representing once subject nations, watch for the decline and fall of the empire from which they have wrested their freedom. Montenegro holds a secure position in the midst of her mountains, with a narrow outlet to the Adriatic through Austrian territory at Cattaro and through her own at Dulcigno and Antivari. Peloponnese, Thessaly and many of the Aegean islands are embraced in the kingdom of Greece, the first of the freed Christian kingdoms of south-eastern Europe. The three kingdoms of Roumania, Bulgaria, and Servia flank the Danube. Servia holds a triangular area, resting on the Danube, with the Austrian province of Bosnia on the one side and Bulgaria on the other. Bulgaria stretches from Servia east to the Black Sea, and includes a chain of the Balkan mountains and the fertile plains to the south. Roumania lies to the north of the Danube, and holds the mountain and rich plain land from the Austrian Carpathians to the Black Sea south of the Russian frontier. Curtailed, on north and south, by the formation of the new kingdoms, the Ottoman empire, nevertheless, still holds a large strip of the Balkan peninsula from the Adriatic to the Dardanelles and the Bosporus, and controls the narrow seas that divide Europe from Asia. Stretching over a continuous area in three continents, it possesses a unique position, girdling the eastern Mediterranean. The centre of its dominion is in Europe, the bulk of its territory in Asia, and the fringes of its empire extend along the northern coast of Africa. Russia holds the greatest continuous expanse of territory which has fallen to any modern State. In Europe, she stands at the furthest limit of her

extension. She holds the eastern Baltic from Tornea to Memel, as Prussia holds the southern Baltic, and the Black Sea littoral from the mouth of the Danube to the frontiers of the Ottoman empire south of the Caucasus. In Finland, Poland, and the Caucasus, she has flanked her territory with subject nations, difficult to govern and impossible to absorb. Over the vast expanses of northern and central Asia she has crept from the Urals to the Hindu Kush and the Pacific Ocean, making one mighty empire of eastern Europe and northern Asia, which struggles against the historical difficulty of Russia, an inadequate outlet to southern seas. In Scandinavia, the political situation reproduces that which preceded the Union of Calmar. Denmark has been curtailed by the loss of Schleswig and Holstein, and has no footing in the Scandinavian peninsula, which Norway and Sweden divide along the line of its natural parting, while Sweden has lost her dominion beyond the Baltic. The Scandinavian nations have played a part in the extension of European influence over the globe; but their work is not represented in any important possessions, save the large Danish island of Iceland. The position of Great Britain in Europe has remained almost unchanged. The cession of Heligoland to Germany, and of the Ionian Islands to Greece, has weakened her position in the North Sea and the Adriatic; but she retains the Channel Isles, and in Gibraltar and Malta she still holds the more important securities of her Mediterranean power. On the other hand, the immense expansion of her empire in America, Asia, Africa, and Australia has formed one of the greatest political developments of the nineteenth century and coupled with the growth of the United States has given the Anglo-Saxon race a predominant position outside of Europe.

At the dawn of modern history, the political power of the European **140**
States was confined within the borders of their own Continent. The brief indications we have already given show how vast a part of the world has now passed under their control. Africa, carved and cut up, without regard to its ethnography or geography or existing civilisations, must be regarded as a mere appendage to Europe, in which has been reproduced the complicated political colouring of Europe. France has crossed the Mediterranean to Algeria, whence she has spread her power into the interior, westwards to the Atlantic, eastwards to Egypt, and southwards to the Congo. Great Britain holds various small areas in western Africa, the greater part of southern Africa, and an almost continuous dominion stretching through the continent from the Cape of Good Hope to the mouth of the Nile. The northern littoral, though opposite to Europe, has not fallen wholly to the colonising Powers. Turkey remains in nominal possession of a large part, and Morocco, though not free, is still independent. Of eastern Africa, England holds the greater part; of north-western, France. England, France, and the independent Powers of Morocco and Abyssinia hold most of the northern half of the continent. The southern half is divided between

Belgium, Portugal, Germany, and England. America, also, is wholly European, but in another sense than Africa. It is a second Europe and not another Africa, in which Europe has reproduced its own political life in a system of States European in blood and institutions, and not like the greater part of Africa, subjected, renamed and without political life. The larger half of the northern continent forms a growing Anglo-Saxon State, the Dominion of Canada, a part of the British empire, the southern and richer half another Anglo-Saxon State, the United States, to whose formation almost all the nations of Europe have contributed, and which in power and wealth is second to none. Mexico, Central America and South America form a group of Latin States. The West Indies remain divided among various European Powers and the United States. In the Pacific, the Continent of Australia and the islands of New Zealand are parts of the British empire. The other islands are partitioned among several Powers. The Dutch hold many of the larger islands of the Malay archipelago. Germany has a sphere of influence adjoining that of Holland. To the south of this lies the vaster sphere of Great Britain. Most of the French islands are still further to the east, though, in New Caledonia and other islands, France has possessions within the circle of British influence. The United States have several isolated possessions. In Asia alone has the advance of Europe been successfully challenged and checked. And, even in Asia, the broad features of political geography are to be sought in the balance of power between the Russian and British empires, and in the various footholds of other Powers, as much as in the position of the independent Asiatic States. Northern Asia and the heart of Central Asia, to the mountains of Afghanistan and Kashmir, are Russian. Russian influence even penetrates near to the southern seas, since Russia virtually controls northern Persia. Great Britain is dominant in southern Asia, having interests on the Arabian coast and the Persian Gulf, holding India south of the Himalayas, Burma and the Straits Settlements. In eastern Asia are the greater of the independent Asiatic Powers. The Japanese empire includes not only many islands off the eastern coast of Asia—Formosa, the Japanese archipelago and part of Saghalin Island—but has also expanded on to the mainland, where it stretches over Korea and the Liao-Tung peninsula. The Chinese empire still holds the fertile plains in the centre of eastern Asia and the mighty plateaux that occupy the heart of the continent. But several of the Western Powers have footholds on or near its territory: Great Britain in Wei-hai-wei and Hong-Kong, Germany at Kiaochau, the United States in the Philippines, while France possesses extensive provinces in the south-eastern bend of the continent. In western Asia, Arabia, Syria, and Asia Minor are parts of the Ottoman empire, while Persia maintains a qualified independence as towards the Russian and British empires, between which, also, the mountain kingdom of Afghanistan acts as a buffer State.

INDEX OF MARGINAL REFERENCES TO MAPS IN *INTRODUCTION.*

The black type indicates the page on which the principal description of a map is given. The ordinary type is used, where an allusion only is made.

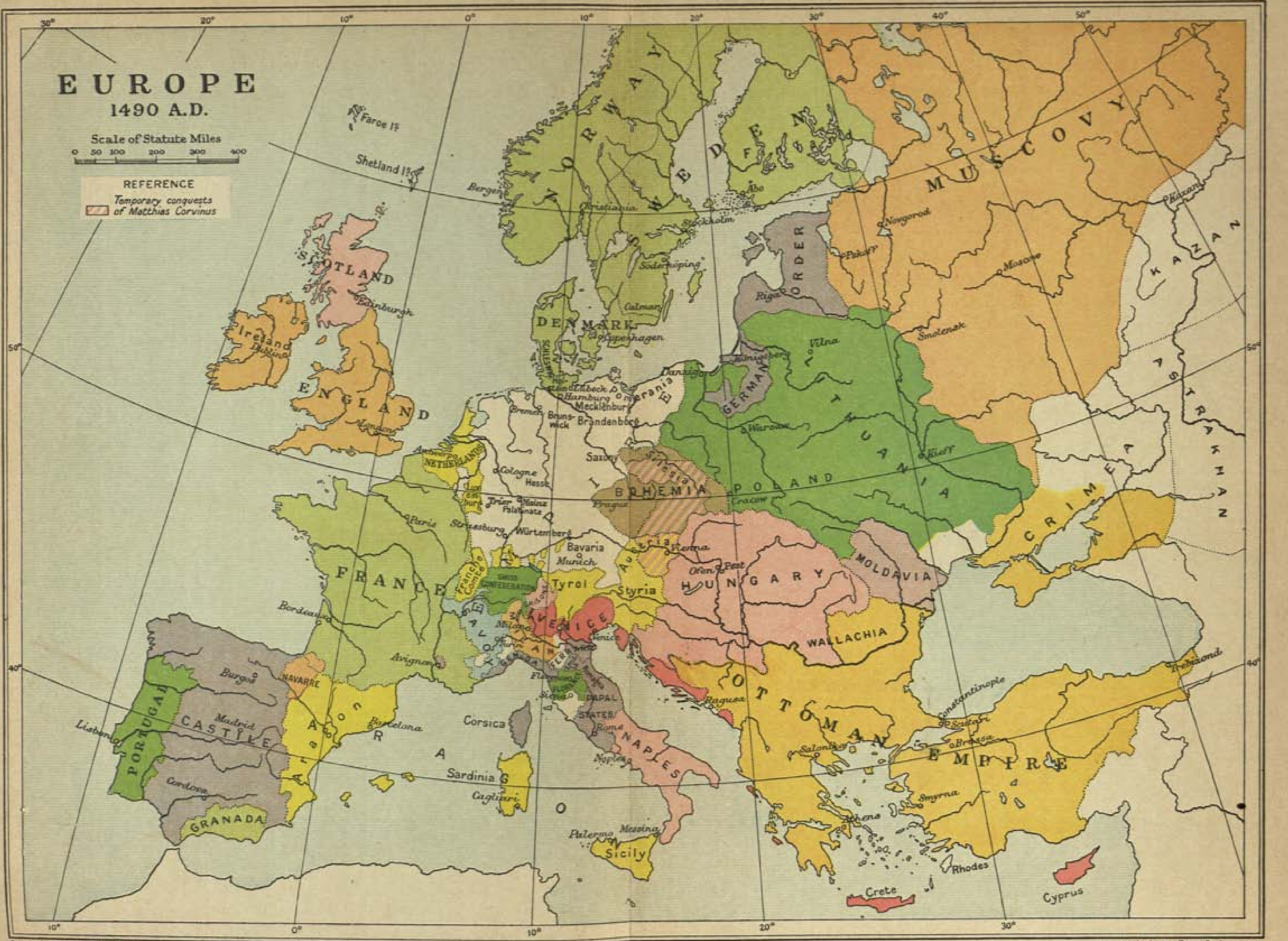
INDEX OF LOCAL NAMES IN *INTRODUCTION*.

MAPS 1—141

MAP 1

Europe

1490 A.D.



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estabt. London.

MAP 2

The Age of Discovery

Map 2



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geogl. Estabt., London.

MAP 3

The Ottoman Advance
in
Europe and Asia Minor



Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geogl Estabt, London

MAP 4

Italy
c. 1490
with inset
Valley of the Po

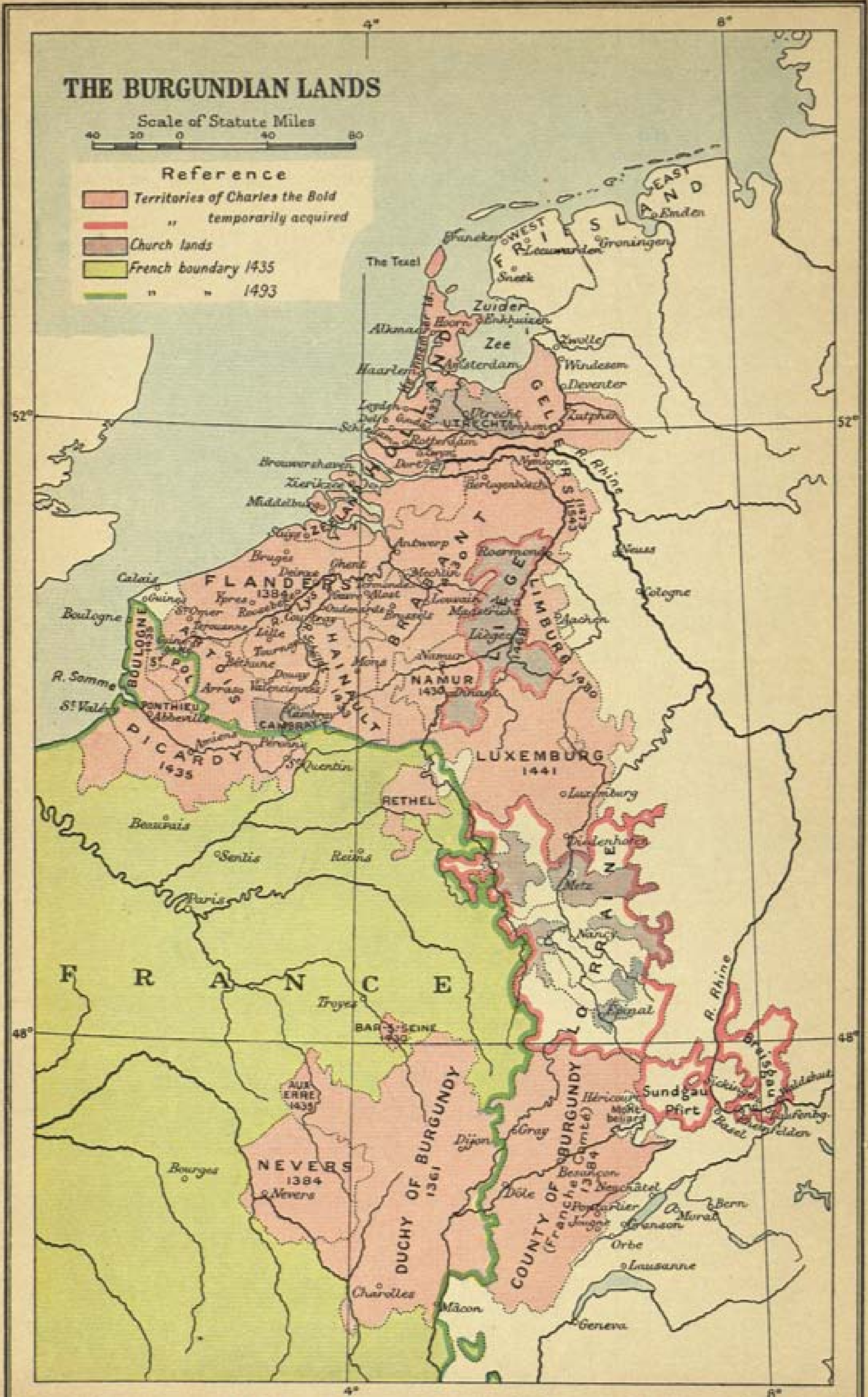


Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geogl. Estabt., London

Map 5


THE EMPIRE
showing the
DIVISION INTO CIRCLES
English Miles
Rugen
Holstein
West Prussia
Pomerania
Mecklenburg
East Friesland
Bremen
Verden
West Friesland
Brunswick Lüneburg
Brandenburg
POLAND
Gelders
Cleves
Lower Lusatia
Upper Lusatia
Silesia
Brabant
Flanders
Artois
Hainault
Jülich
Mark
Hesse
Saxony
Würzburg
Bamberg
Baireuth
Luxemburg
Bohemia
Moravia
Palatinate
Zweibrücken
Ansbach
Upper Palatinate
Lorraine
Würtemberg
Bavaria
Augsburg
Austria
Upper Austria
Lower
Salzburg
Styria
HUNGARY
Franche Comté
SWISS CONFEDERATION
Tyrol
Carinthia
Trent
Carniola
Savoy
VENICE
Croatia
Piedmont
Milan
Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geogl Estabt, London.
Austrian Circle
Burgundian Circle
Electoral Rhenish Circle
Franconian Circle
Bavarian Circle
Suabian Circle
Upper Rhenish Circle
Westphalian Circle
Upper Saxon Circle
Lower
Immediate Imperial Territory
Boundary of the Empire


THE BURGUNDIAN LANDS
Scale of Statute Miles
40 20 0 40 80
Reference
Territories of Charles the Bold
" temporarily acquired
Church lands
French boundary 1435
" " 1493
4°
8°
52°
48°
FRANCE
FLANDERS
1384
ARTOIS
PICARDY
1435
BOULOGNE
ST. POL
PONTHIEU
HAINAULT
CAMBRAI
NAMUR
1430
LUXEMBURG
1441
RETHEL
LIMBURG
BRABANT
HOLLAND
ZEALAND
UTRECHT
GELDERS
1473
FRIESLAND
WEST
EAST
LORRAINE
DUCHY OF BURGUNDY
1361
COUNTY OF BURGUNDY
(Franche Comté)
1384
NEVERS
1384
AUXERRE
1435
BAR-S-SEINE
Sundgau
Pfirt
Breisgau
The Texel
Zuider Zee
R. Rhine
R. Somme
Calais
Boulogne
St. Valéry
Abbeville
Amiens
Peronne
St. Quentin
Beauvais
Senlis
Reims
Paris
Troyes
Bourges
Nevers
Dijon
Gray
Dôle
Charolles
Mâcon
Besançon
Pontarlier
Jougne
Neuchâtel
Grenson
Orbe
Lausanne
Geneva
Bern
Morat
Basel
Héricourt
Montbéliard
Épinal
Nancy
Metz
Diedenhofen
Luxemburg
Liége
Mastricht
Aachen
Cologne
Neuss
Roermond
Louvain
Brussels
Mechlin
Antwerp
Ghent
Bruges
Ypres
Lille
Tournay
Douay
Arras
Béthune
Valenciennes
Mons
Namur
Dinant
Cambrai
Courtray
Oudenarde
Termonde
Deinze
Alost
Guines
St. Omer
Terouanne
Sluys
Middelburg
Zierikzee
Brouwershaven
Dordrecht
Rotterdam
Gouda
Delft
Leyden
Schiedam
Haarlem
Amsterdam
Alkmaar
Hoorn
Enkhuizen
Franeker
Leeuwarden
Sneek
Groningen
Emden
Zwolle
Windesem
Deventer
Zutphen
Arnhem
Utrecht
Nimegen
Hertogenbosch

MAP 7

The
Iberian Peninsula
in the time of
Ferdinand and Isabel

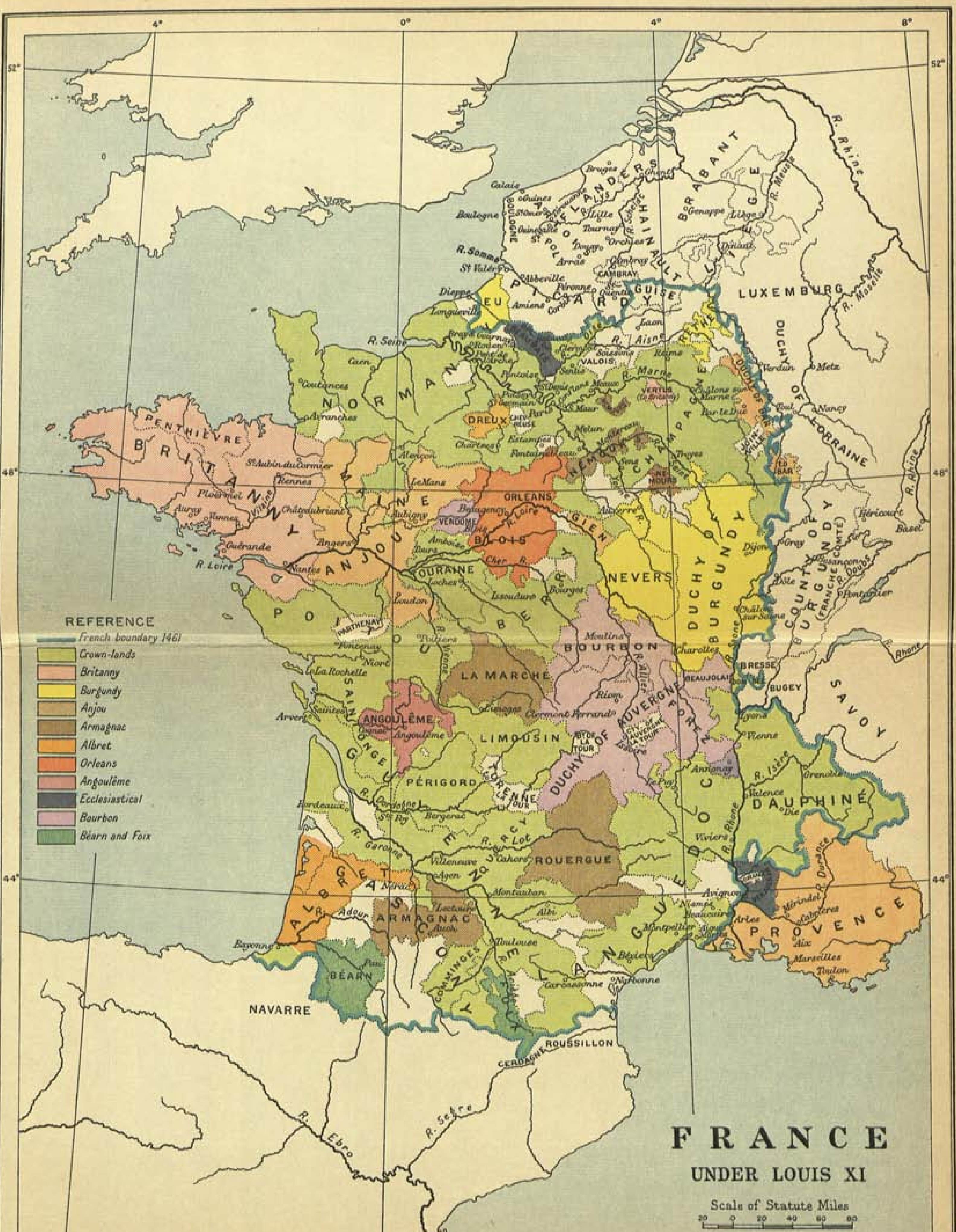


Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab^t, London.

MAP 8

France
under Louis XI



Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.



Cambridge University Press

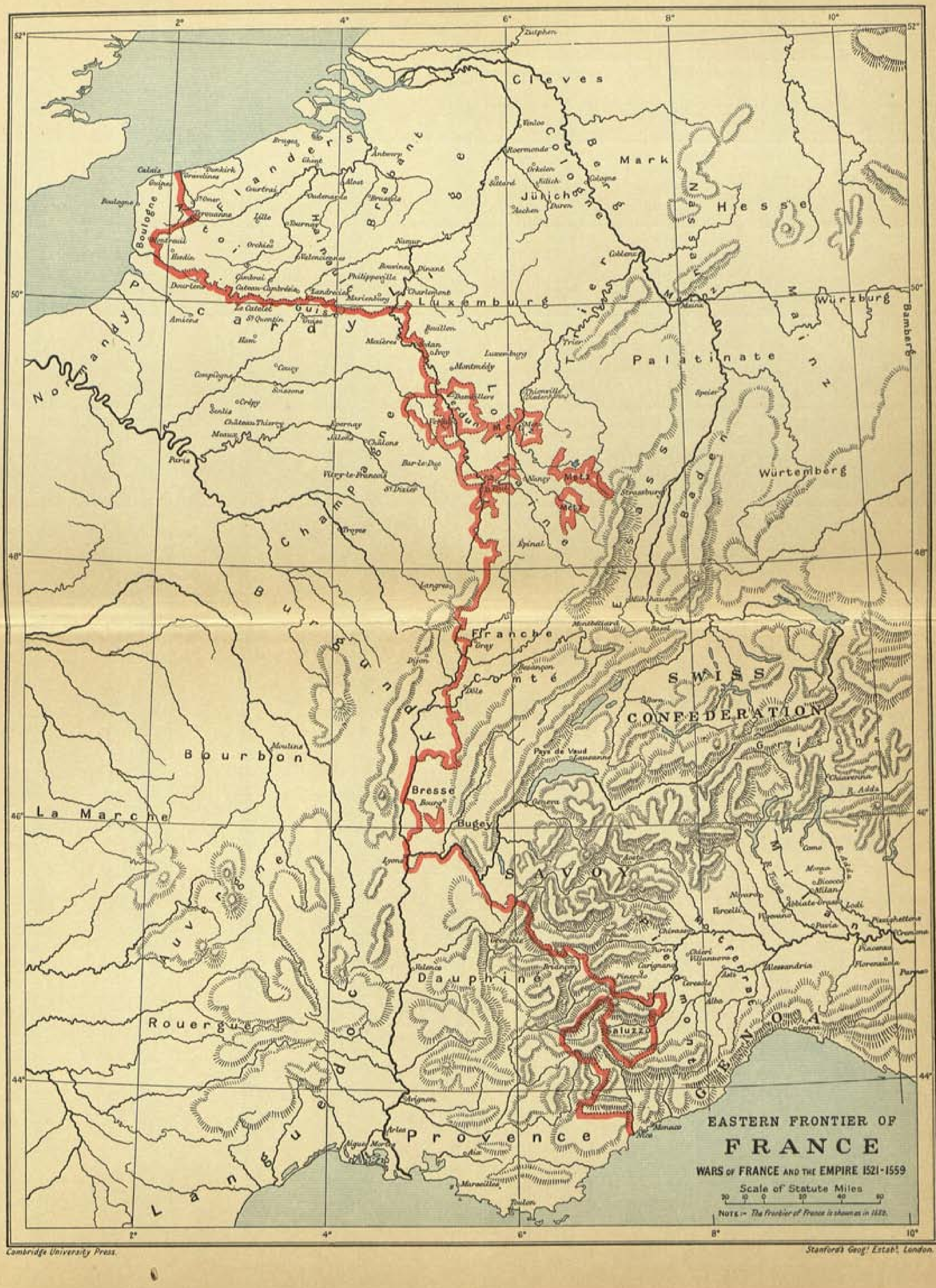
Stanford's Geog¹ Estab¹, London.


DOMINIONS OF THE
HOUSE OF HABSBURG
IN EUROPE AT THE
ABDICATION OF CHARLES V
Scale of Statute Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300
Habsburg lands are tinted green
NOTE - The greater part of Hungary including Transylvania was in continual dispute with the Turks. The relation of the Habsburg and Ottoman Powers is here shown as it stood at the truce of 1547.
NETHERLANDS
Amsterdam
The Hague
Bruges
Calais
Antwerp
Brussels
Liège
Arras
Cologne
Mainz
Trier
Metz
Strassburg
LORRAINE
Luxemburg
R. Rhine
R. Elbe
BRANDENBURG
Berlin
POMERANIA
PRUSSIA
R. Vistula
POLAND
R. Dniester
Magdeburg
Leipzig
SAXONY
Dresden
SILESIA
Breslau
BOHEMIA
Prague
MORAVIA
Olmütz
Nürnberg
R. Danube
Augsburg
Munich
AUSTRIA
Linz
Vienna
Salzburg
Pressburg
TRANSYLVANIA
HUNGARY
Gran
Erlau
Stuhlweissenburg
Gratz
Szegedin
Temesvar
Banat
Lippa
Szigeth
STYRIA
CARINTHIA
TYROL
CARNIOLA
Trieste
CROATIA
SLAVONIA
R. Drave
R. Save
SWISS CONFEDERATION
Bern
Besançon
Basel
Freiburg
Innsbruck
Trent
VENICE
Venice
Milan
R. Po
SAVOY
FRANCE
Rouen
Paris
R. Seine
Troyes
Dijon
Charolais
R. Loire
Lyons
R. Rhone
Avignon
Marseilles
Bordeaux
R. Garonne
Toulouse
Perpignan
Bayonne
Pampeluna
NAVARRE
ARAGON
Saragossa
Barcelona
R. Ebro
SPAIN
Leon
Burgos
Braganza
Valladolid
R. Douro
Salamanca
Madrid
R. Tagus
Toledo
Badajoz
Guadalquivir
Seville
Granada
Cartagena
Cadiz
PORTUGAL
Braga
Oporto
Lisbon
Tangiers
Ceuta
Oran
Bona
Biserta
Goletta
Tunis
BALEARIC ISLES
CORSICA
SARDINIA
FLORENCE
Florence
PAPAL STATES
Rome
NAPLES
Naples
Benevento
SICILY
Palermo
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Cambridge University Press
Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.

MAP 11

Eastern frontier of France

Wars of France and the Empire 1521-1559


EASTERN FRONTIER OF
FRANCE
WARS OF FRANCE AND THE EMPIRE 1521-1559
Scale of Statute Miles
NOTE:– The Frontier of France is shown as in 1522.
Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

Map 11

MAP 12

Germany
at the
Accession of Charles V



Stanford's Geog¹ Estab¹, London.

MAP 13

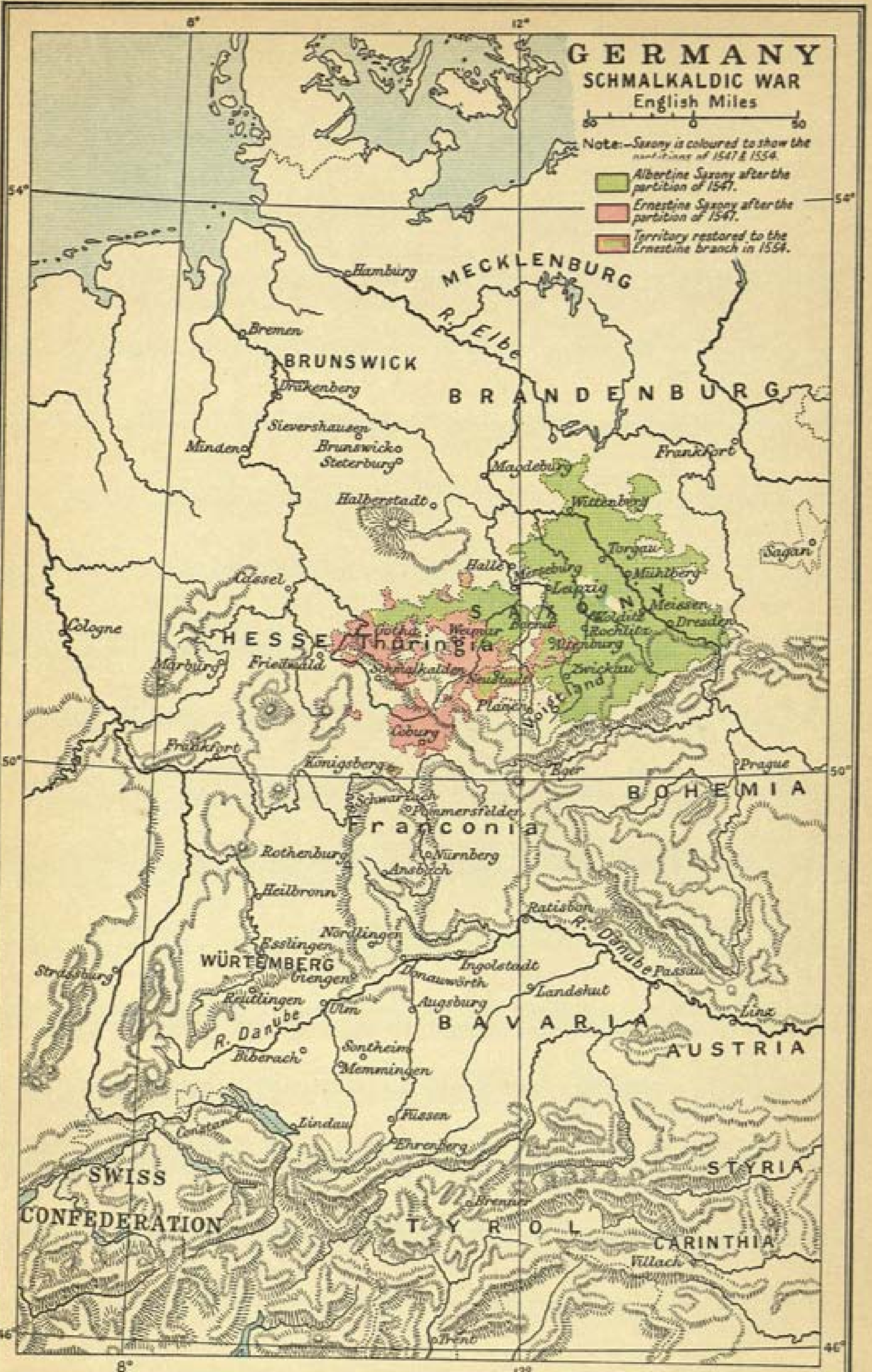
Southern Germany
and England
The Peasant Movements



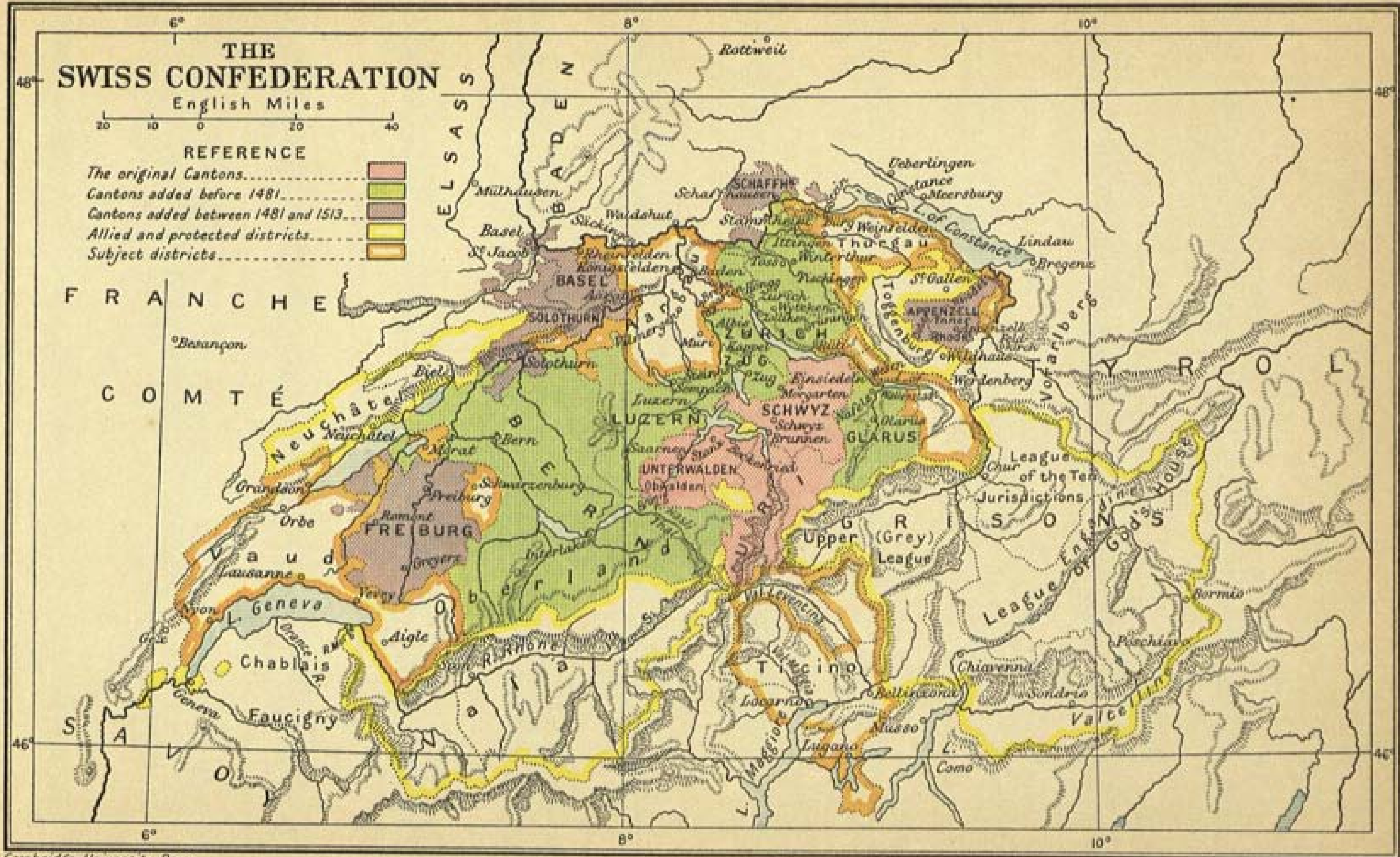
Map 18

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Map 15

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MAP 16

England & Wales

under

the Tudors



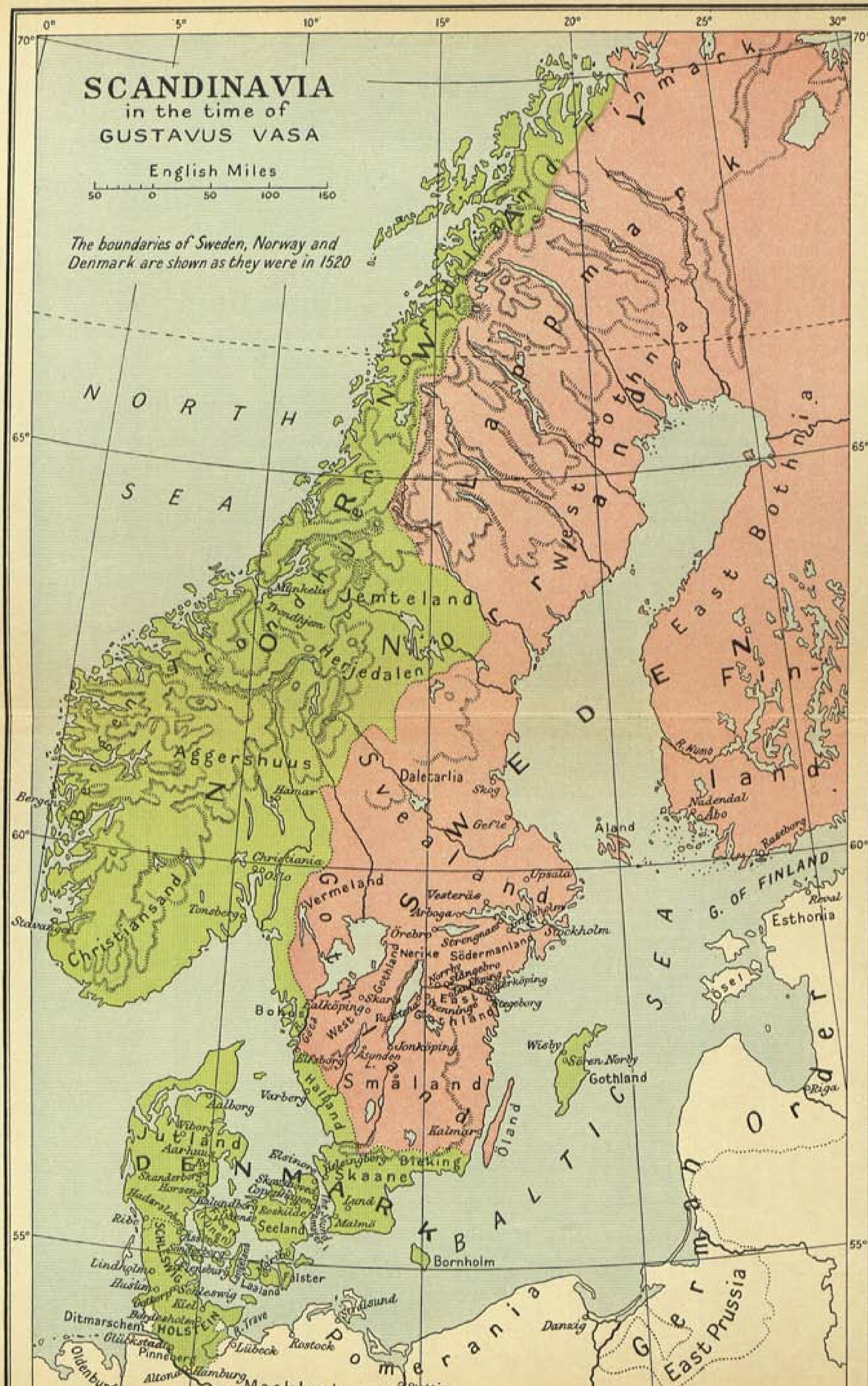
Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

Map 16

MAP 17

Scandinavia
in the time of
Gustavus Vasa



Map 17

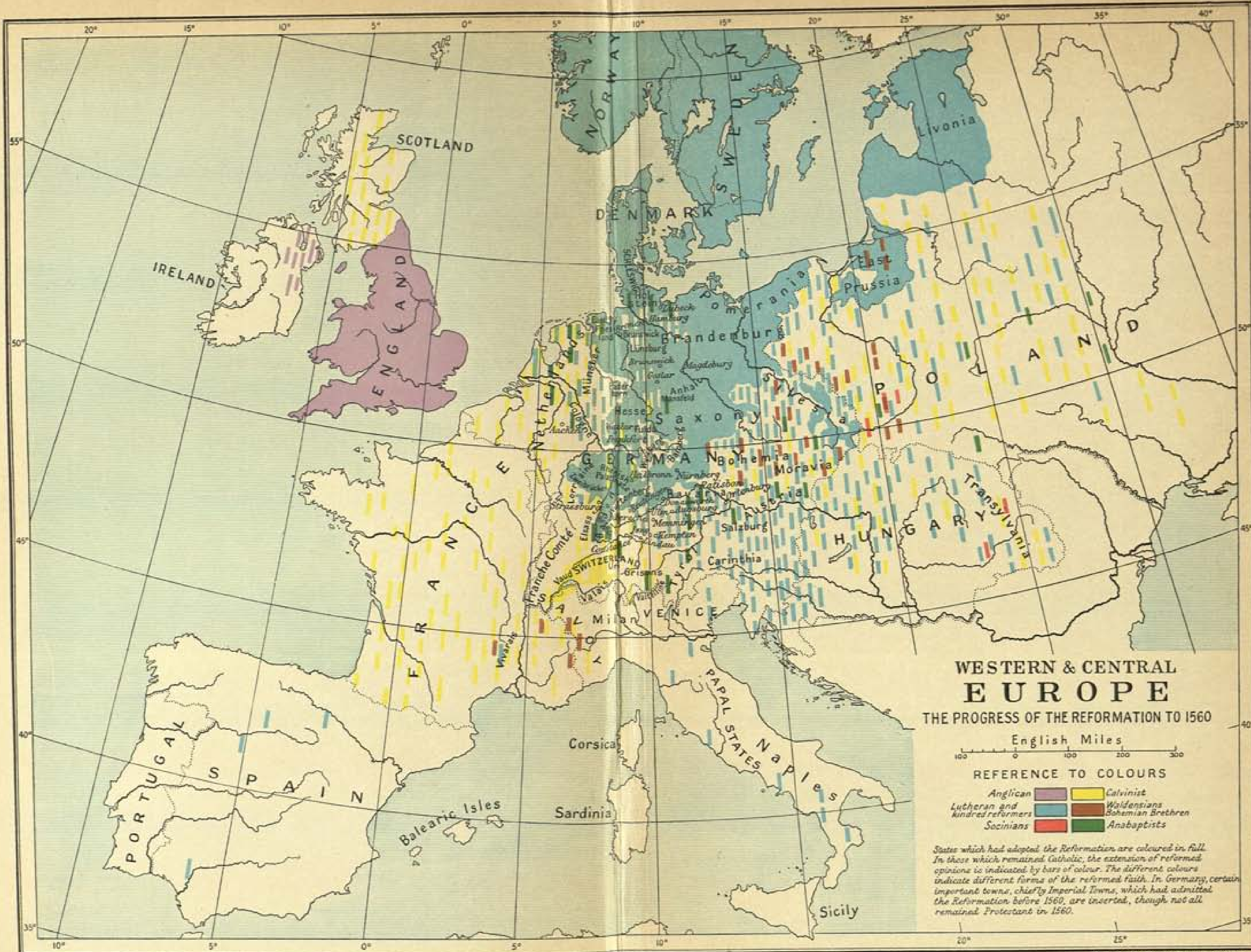
Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 18

Western and Central Europe

The Progress of the Reformation to 1560



Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 19

France

The Religious Wars

with inset

The Neighbourhood of Paris



Map 19

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geogl Estabt, London.



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

Map 20

MAP 21

Hungary

at the end of the

Sixteenth Century


HUNGARY
AT THE END OF THE
SIXTEENTH CENTURY
English Miles
50 0 50 100
REFERENCE
Austrian Hungary
Turkish Dependencies
Turkish Hungary and other Turkish Dominions
Transylvania, generally under Turkish influence
The red line shows the frontiers of Hungary to south & east in 1490.
The relative positions of the Hapsburg and Ottoman Powers in Hungary are shown as they stood at the Peace of 1606.
Marshes
16°
20°
24°
28°
48°
44°
POLAND
Bohemia
Prague
Kuttenberg
Rozmital
Troppau
Olmütz
Iglau
Moravia
Rossitz
Brünn
Rosenberg
R. March
R. Danube
Austria
Vienna
R. Leitha
Styria
Graz
Carinthia
R. Drave
R. Mur
Carniola
Laibach
ARVA
TRENCSÉN
TURÓCZ
LIPTO
ZIPS
SAROSCH
Bartfa
Eperjes
Löcse
ZEMPLÉN
Kaschau
ZÓLYOM
GÖMÖR
TORNA
ABAUJ
NYITRA
Tyrnau (Nagy Szombat)
BARS
POZSONY
Pressburg (Pozsony)
HONT
NÓGRÁD
Fülek
Szerencs
Tokay
R. Theiss
Partium Regni Hungariae
Szatmár
Szigeth
Debreczen
Erlau (Eger)
Nógrád
Wischegrad
Waitzen (Vácz)
Komorn
Gran
MOSON
Raab (Györ)
SOPRON
GYÖR
Pannonhalma
Tata
Buda
Pest
Rákos
Güns (Köszeg)
Stuhlweissenberg (Székes Fejérvár)
VESZPRÉM
Veszprém
VAS
ZALA
BUDA VILAYET
Szolnok
Grosswardein (Varad)
Klausenburg (Kolozsvár)
OTTOMAN
Transylvania
Bukovina
Suczawa
Moldavia
Jassy
HUNGARY
Kanizsa
Tolna
Kalocsa
Szegedin
TEMESVAR VILAYET
Lippa
Maros
Weissenburg
Kenyérmező
Szászváros (Broos)
Hermannstadt (Nagy Szeben)
VARASD
Upper Slavonia
Agram (Zágráb)
ZÁGRÁB
Croatia
Fünfkirchen (Pécs)
Szigetvár
Mohács
R. Drave
Slavonia
Essek
Temesvár
Módos
Sissek
R. Kulpa
R. Save
R. Una
Syrmia
Semlin
Belgrade
R. Danube
R. Drina
R. Bosna
Szabács
Jajcza
BOSNIA VILAYET
EMPIRE
Wallachia
R. Aluta
Bucharest
Widdin

MAP 22

The Netherlands

The Wars of Independence



Cambridge University Press. Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 23

Scotland

in the

XVIth and XVIIth Centuries



Cambridge University Press

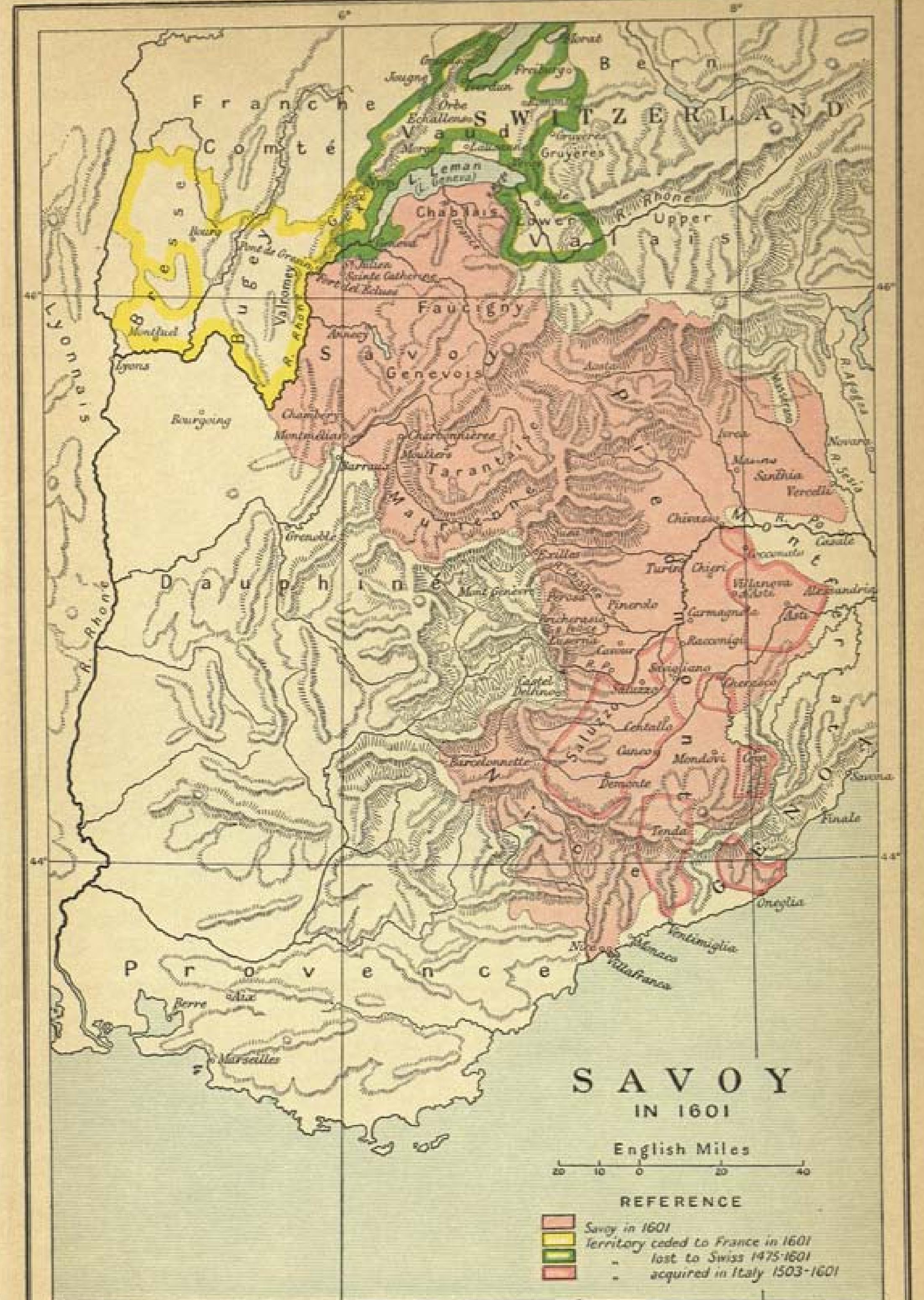
Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.

Map 23



Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.


SAVOY
IN 1601
English Miles
20 10 0 20 40
REFERENCE
Savoy in 1601
Territory ceded to France in 1601
" lost to Swiss 1475-1601
" acquired in Italy 1503-1601
SWITZERLAND
Bern
Franche Comté
Vaud
L. Leman (L. Genève)
Chablais
Lower Valais
Upper Valais
R. Rhone
Bresse
Bugey
Valromey
Faucigny
Savoy
Genevois
Tarantaise
Maurienne
Piedmont
Dauphiné
Provence
Lyonnais
Genoa
Nice
Gruyères
Fribourg
Morat
Jougne
Grandson
Yverdun
Orbe
Echallens
Morges
Lausanne
Geneva
Gex
Bourg
Montluel
Lyons
Pont de Grésin
Saint Julien
Sainte Catherine
Fort de l'Ecluse
Annecy
Chambéry
Montmélian
Bourgoing
Charbonnières
Moûtiers
Barraux
Grenoble
Aosta
Ivrea
Masserano
Santhia
Vercelli
Novara
R. Sesia
Chivasso
R. Po
Casale
Turin
Chieri
Villanova d'Asti
Asti
Alexandria
Mont Genèvre
Pinerolo
Carmagnola
Racconigi
Cavour
Savigliano
Saluzzo
Cherasco
Castel Delfino
Barcelonnette
Centallo
Cuneo
Mondovì
Ceva
Demonte
Tenda
Savona
Finale
Oneglia
Ventimiglia
Monaco
Villafranca
Aix
Berre
Marseilles
6°
8°
46°
44°

MAP 26

Italy

at the end of the

Sixteenth Century



Map 26

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London

MAP 27

Ireland

at the beginning of the

XVIth Century



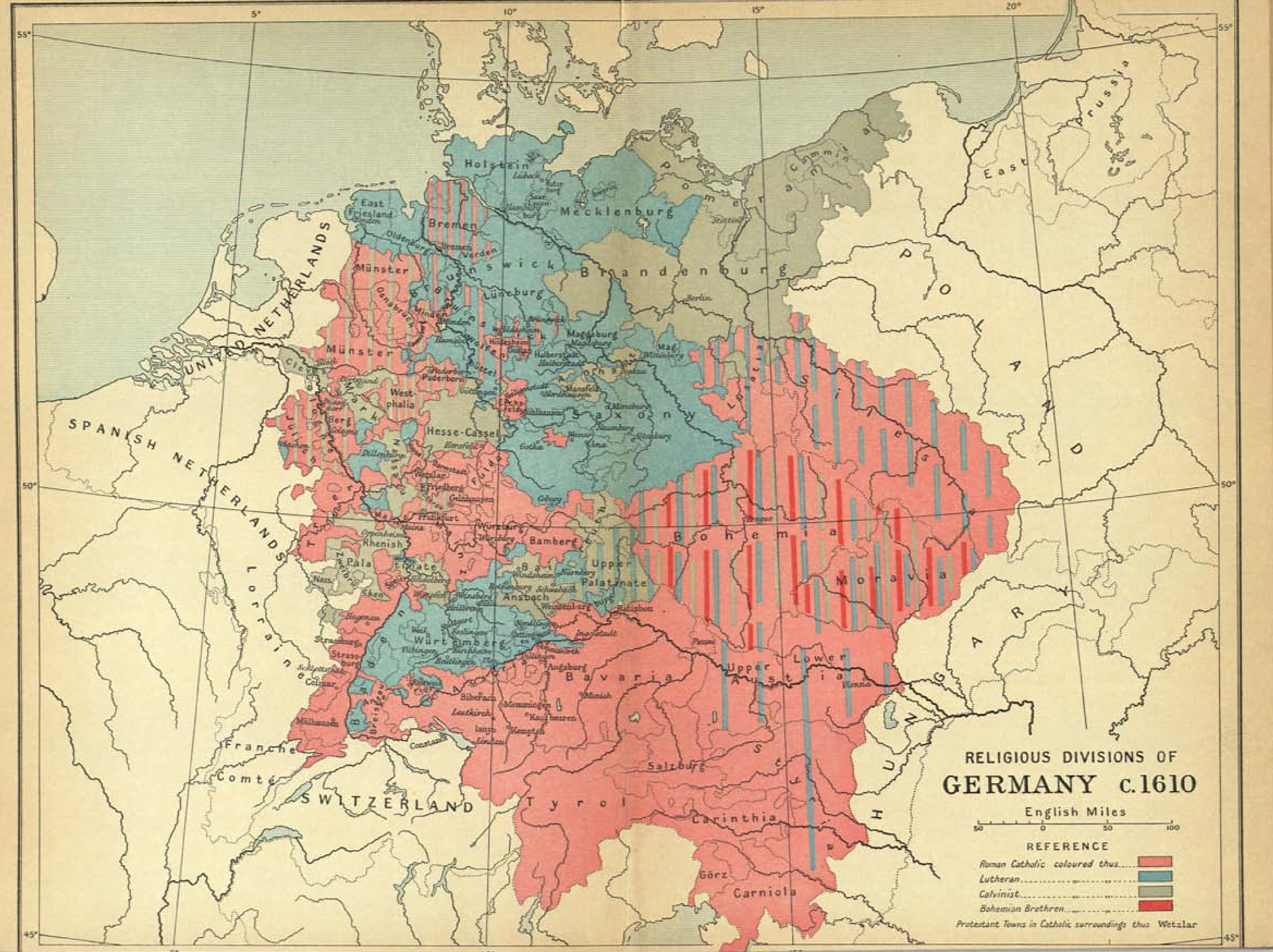
Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

Map 27

MAP 28

Religious Divisions of Germany

c. 1610


RELIGIOUS DIVISIONS OF
GERMANY c.1610
English Miles
REFERENCE
Roman Catholic coloured thus
Lutheran
Calvinist
Bohemian Brethren
Protestant Towns in Catholic surroundings thus Wetzlar
Holstein
Mecklenburg
Pomerania
East Prussia
Brandenburg
Berlin
POLAND
UNITED NETHERLANDS
SPANISH NETHERLANDS
East Friesland
Bremen
Münster
Brunswick
Lüneburg
Magdeburg
Anhalt
Saxony
Silesia
Westphalia
Hesse-Cassel
Bohemia
Moravia
Bamberg
Upper Palatinate
Ansbach
Würtemberg
Bavaria
Upper Austria
Lower Austria
HUNGARY
Lorraine
Franche Comté
SWITZERLAND
Tyrol
Salzburg
Styria
Carinthia
Görz
Carniola

MAP 29

Germany

The Thirty Years War

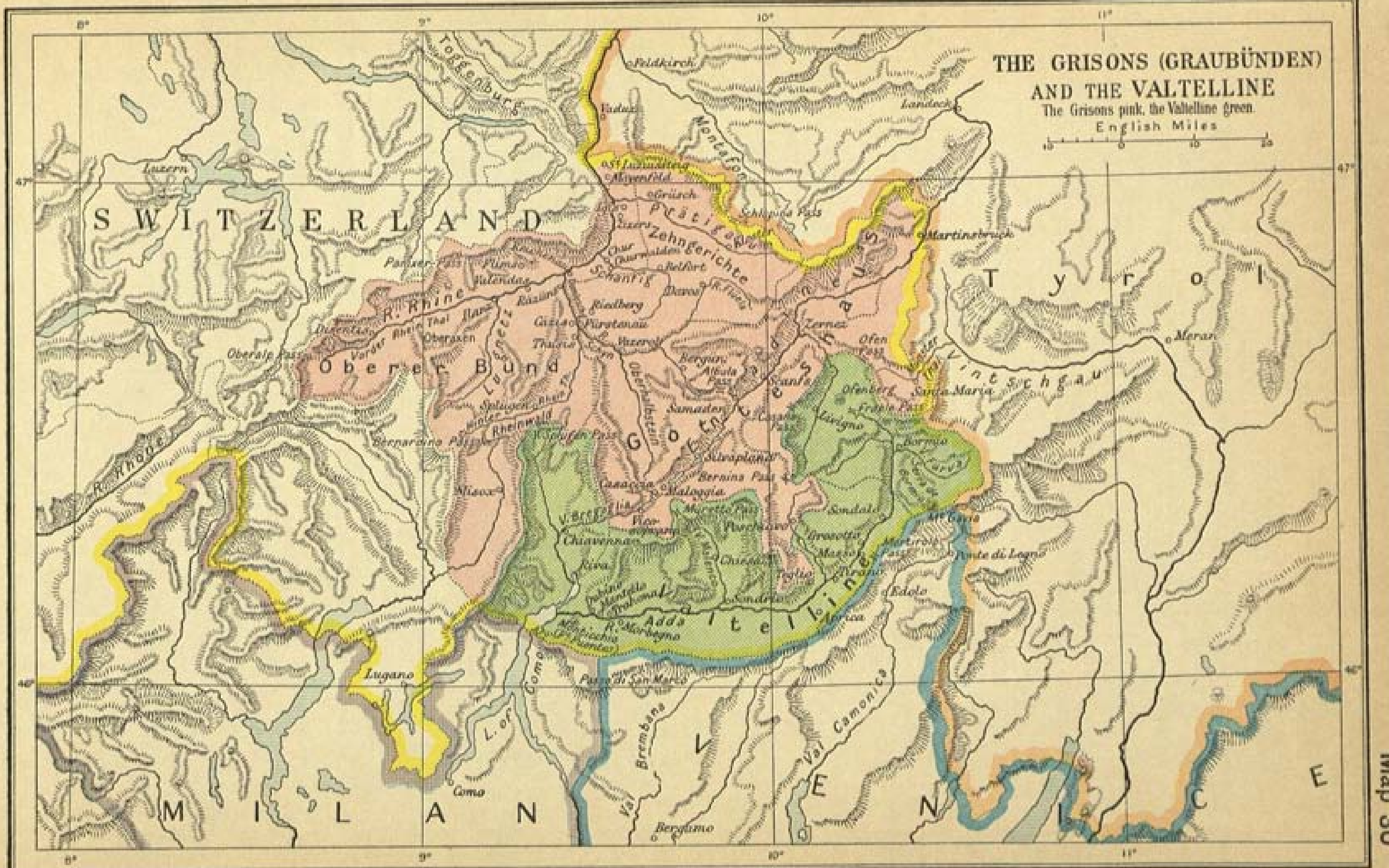
1619–1629

Campaigns in Bohemia, the Palatinate, Lower Saxony & Denmark



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.


THE GRISONS (GRAUBÜNDEN)
AND THE VALTELLINE
The Grisons pink, the Valtelline green
English Miles
SWITZERLAND
Tyrol
MILAN
VENICE
Grauer Bund
Gotteshaus
Zehngerichte
Prätigau
Valtelline
Luzern
Toggenburg
Feldkirch
Vaduz
Landeck
Montafon
Schlappina Pass
Martinsbruck
Meran
Vintschgau
Maienfeld
Grüsch
Chur
Belfort
Schanfig
Davos
Zernez
Ofen Pass
Santa Maria
Ofenberg
Fraele Pass
Livigno
Bormio
Sondalo
Grosotto
Tirano
Ponte di Legno
Edolo
Val Camonica
Val Brembana
Bergamo
Como
L. of Como
Lugano
Oberalp Pass
Panixer Pass
Ilanz
Disentis
Oberhalbstein
Samaden
Bernina Pass
Maloggia
Casaccia
Chiavenna
Poschiavo
Sondrio
R. Adda
Morbegno
R. Rhine
R. Rhone
Tusis
Bernardino Pass
Splügen
Misox
Rheinwald
Cambridge University Press
Stanford's Geog! Estab! London



Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.



Cambridge University Press. Stanford's Geogl. Estabt., London.

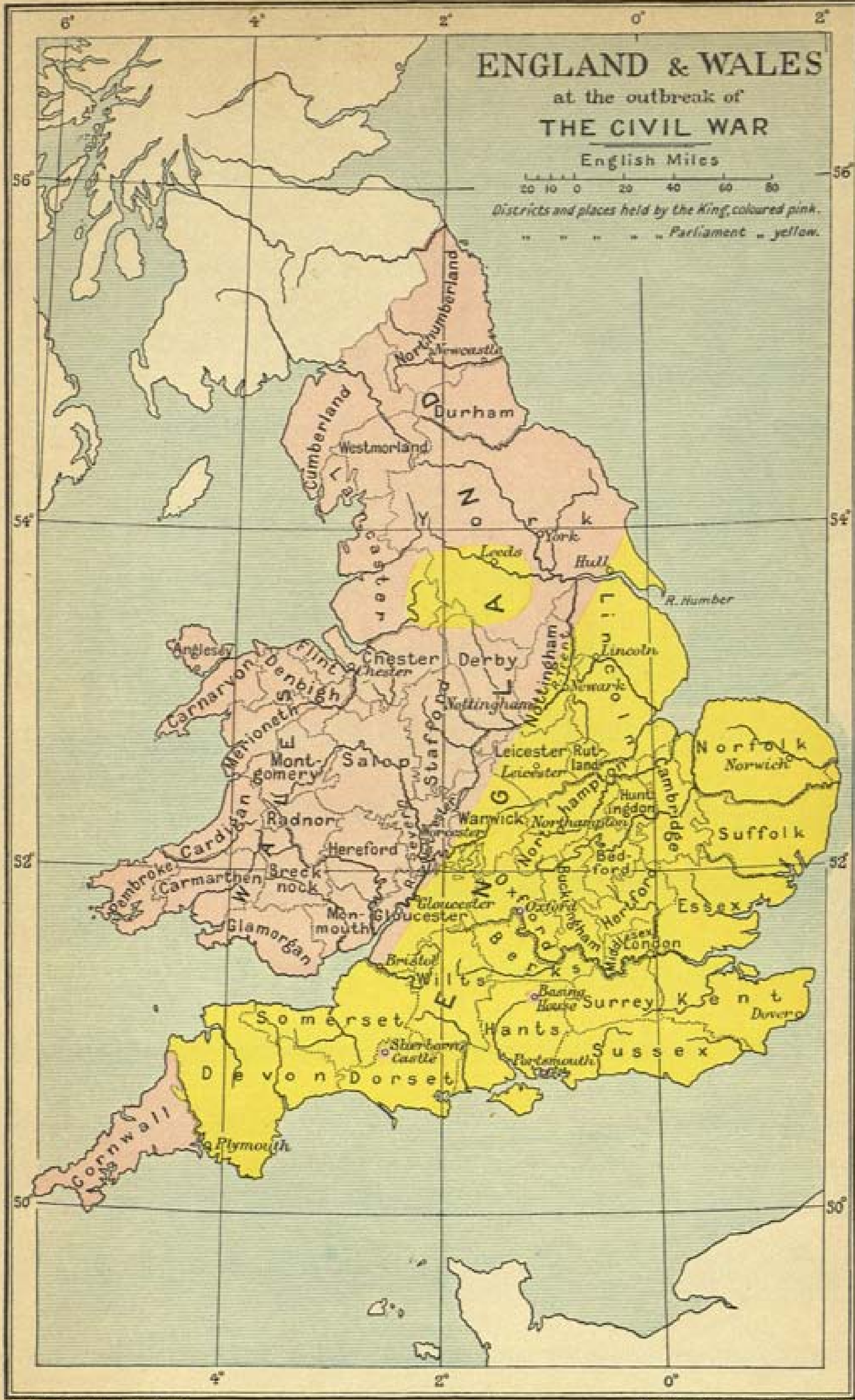
MAP 33

Germany
The Thirty Years War
1630-48
The Swedish Campaigns

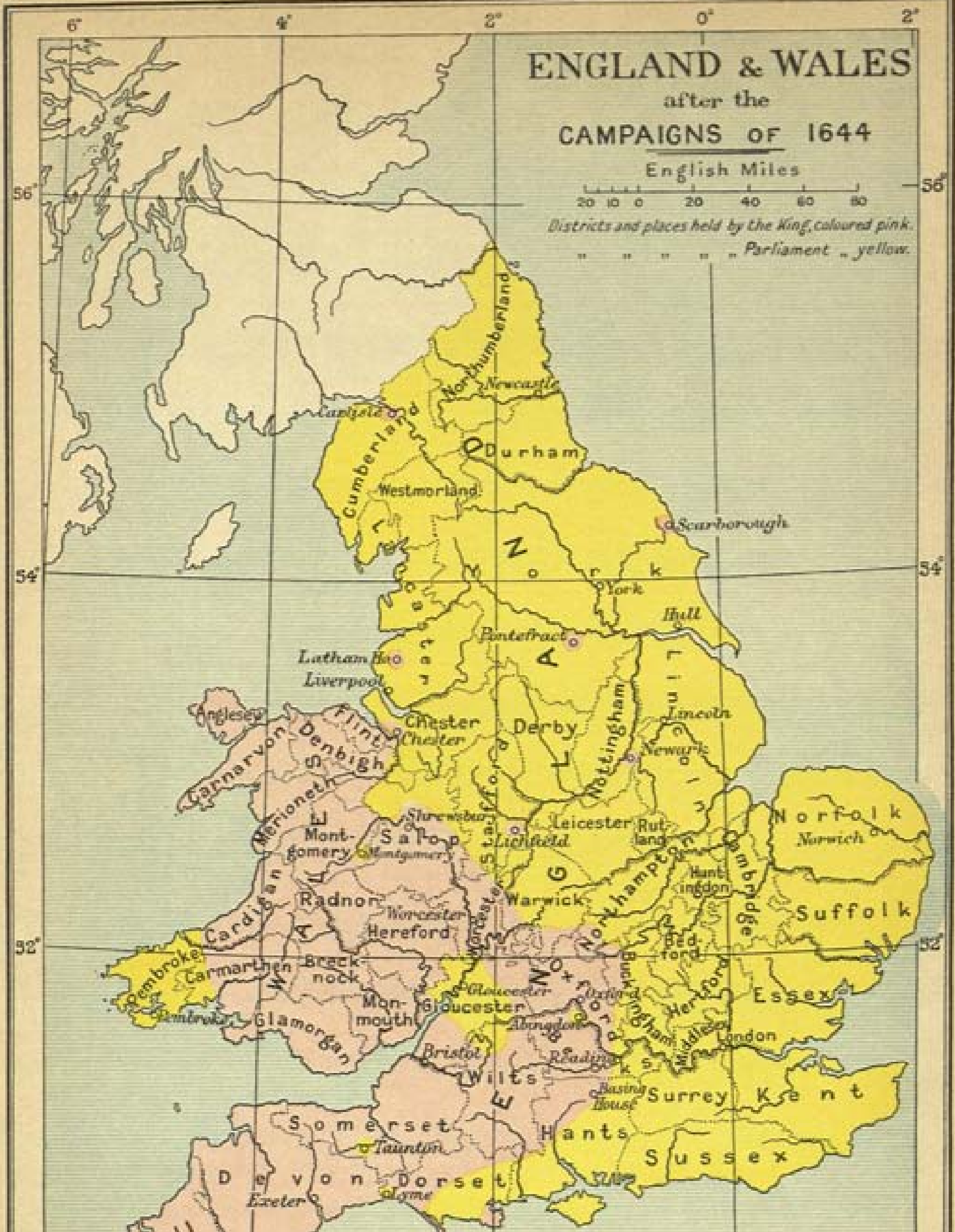


Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.



Cambridge University Press
Stanford's Geog! Estab! London


ENGLAND & WALES
after the
CAMPAIGNS OF 1644
English Miles
20 10 0 20 40 60 80
Districts and places held by the King, coloured pink.
" " " " " Parliament " yellow.
6° 4° 2° 0° 2°
56° 54° 52° 50°
Northumberland
Newcastle
Carlisle
Cumberland
Durham
Westmorland
Scarborough
York
Hull
Pontefract
Latham Ho.
Liverpool
Chester
Derby
Nottingham
Lincoln
Newark
Anglesey
Flint
Denbigh
Carnarvon
Merioneth
Shrewsbury
Salop
Montgomery
Lichfield
Leicester
Rutland
Norfolk
Norwich
Northampton
Huntingdon
Cambridge
Suffolk
Cardigan
Radnor
Worcester
Hereford
Warwick
Bedford
Pembroke
Carmarthen
Brecknock
Gloucester
Oxford
Buckingham
Hertford
Essex
Monmouth
Glamorgan
Abingdon
Middlesex
London
Bristol
Reading
Wilts
Basing House
Surrey
Kent
Somerset
Taunton
Hants
Sussex
Devon
Dorset
Lyme
Exeter
Cornwall
Plymouth
WALES
ENGLAND

MAP 36

England & Wales

The Civil War



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London

Map 36



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geogl Estabt, London.

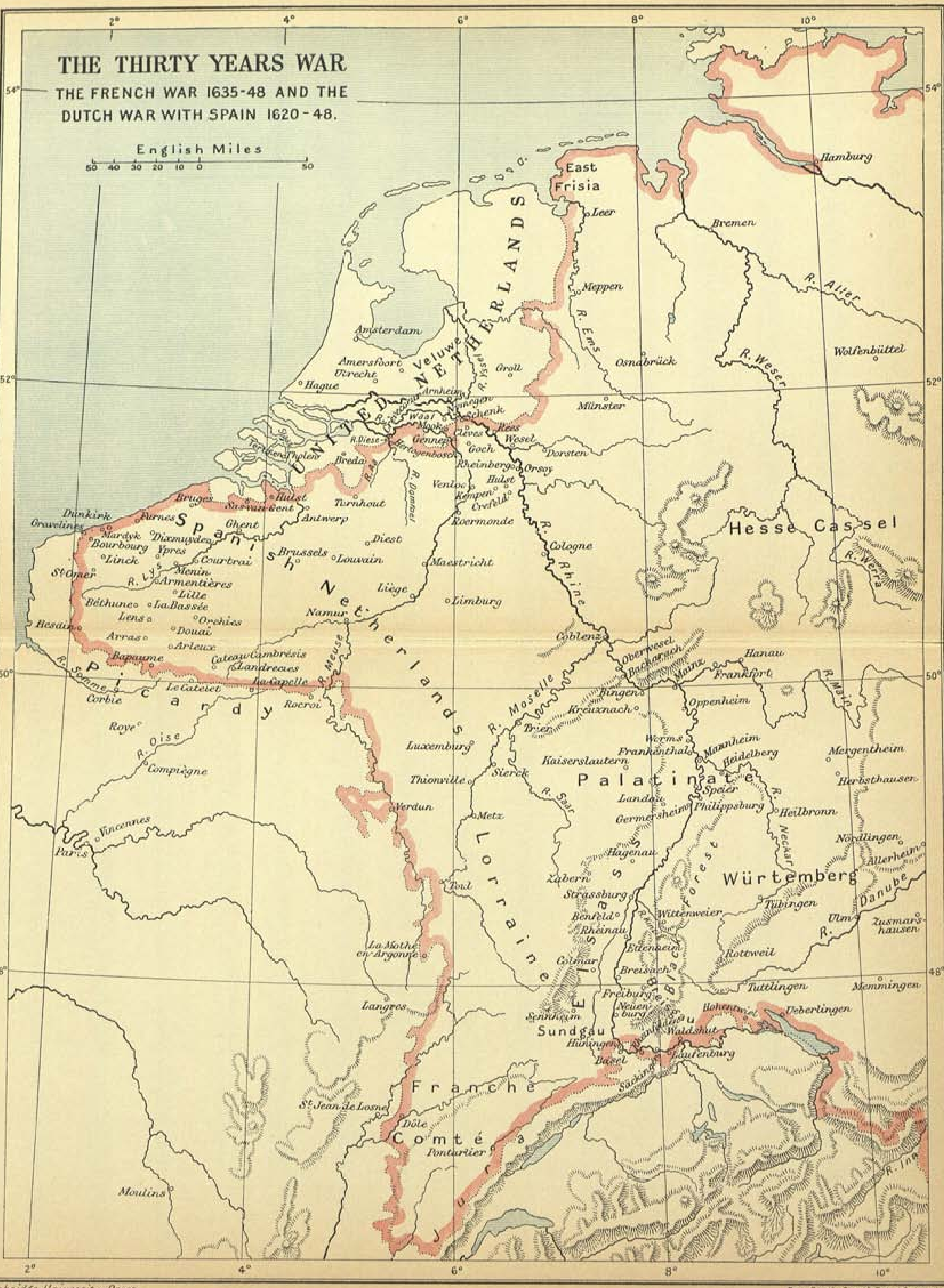


Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geog¹ Estab¹, London.

MAP 39

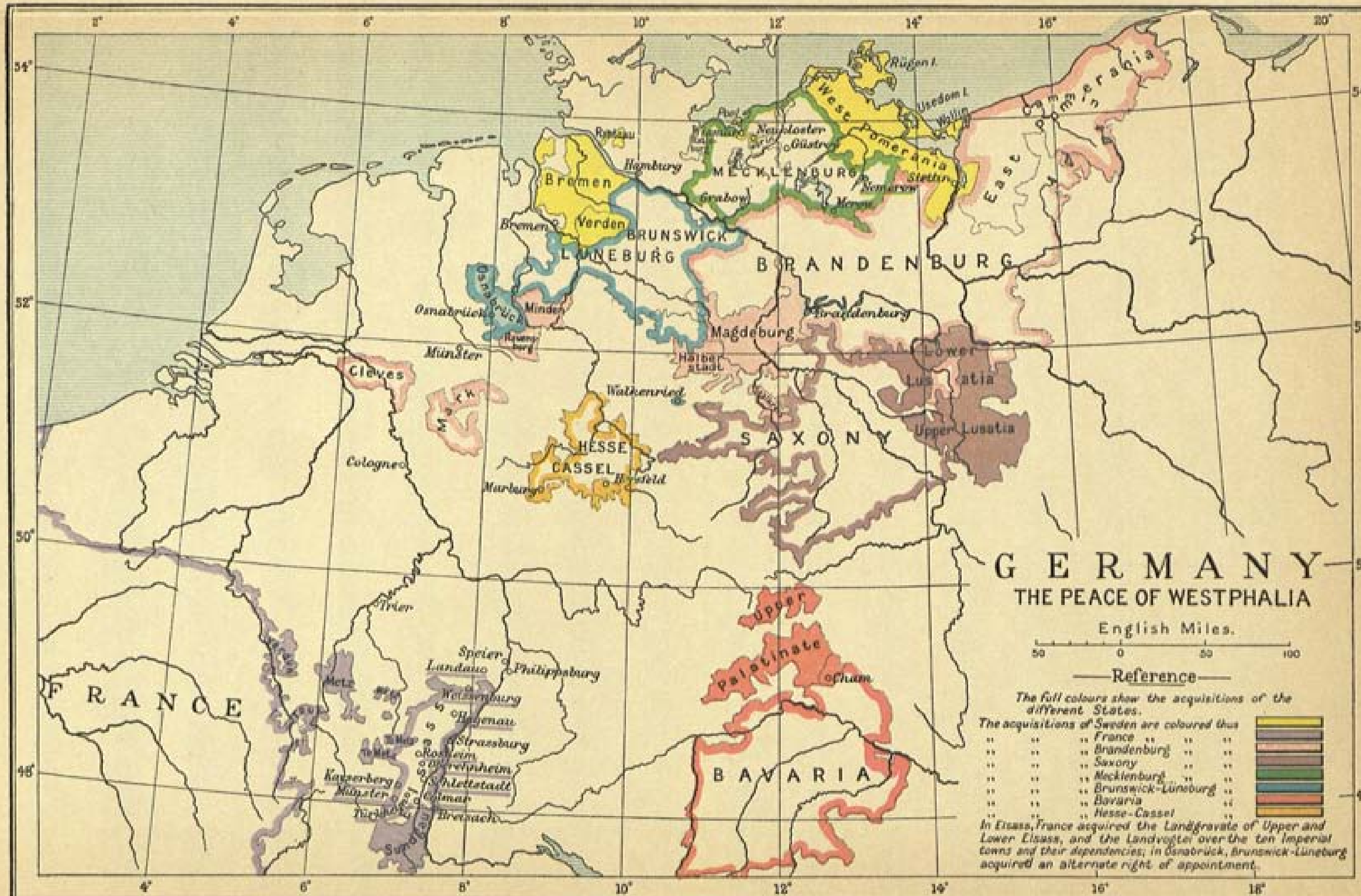
The Thirty Years War

The French War 1635–48
and the
Dutch War with Spain 1620–48



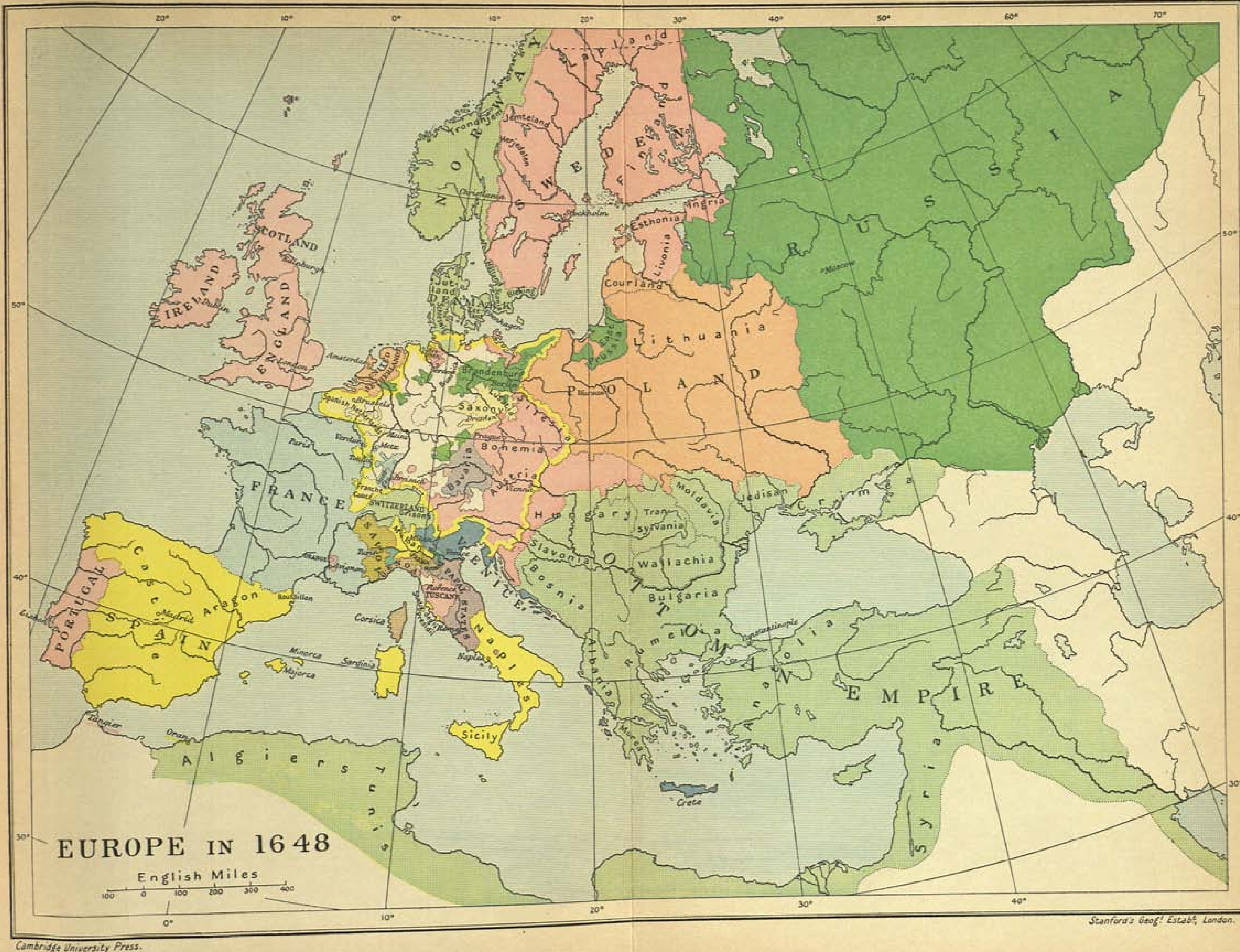
Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London


GERMANY
THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA
English Miles.
50 0 50 100
Reference
The full colours show the acquisitions of the different States.
The acquisitions of Sweden are coloured thus
" " " France " " "
" " " Brandenburg " "
" " " Saxony " "
" " " Mecklenburg " "
" " " Brunswick-Lüneburg "
" " " Bavaria " "
" " " Hesse-Cassel " "
In Elsass, France acquired the Landgravate of Upper and Lower Elsass, and the Landvogtei over the ten Imperial towns and their dependencies; in Osnabrück, Brunswick-Lüneburg acquired an alternate right of appointment.
BRANDENBURG
MECKLENBURG
BRUNSWICK
LÜNEBURG
SAXONY
HESSE CASSEL
BAVARIA
FRANCE
West Pomerania
East Pomerania
Bremen
Verden
Hamburg
Osnabrück
Minden
Münster
Cleves
Mark
Cologne
Magdeburg
Halberstadt
Brandenburg
Lower Lusatia
Upper Lusatia
Upper Palatinate
Cham
Walkenried
Hersfeld
Marburg
Trier
Speier
Landau
Philippsburg
Weissenburg
Hagenau
Strassburg
Rosheim
Oberehnheim
Schlettstadt
Colmar
Kaysersberg
Münster
Türkheim
Breisach
Sundgau
Metz
Rügen I.
Usedom I.
Wollin
Stettin
Güstrow
Neukloster
Wismar
Grabow
Ratzeburg
Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London

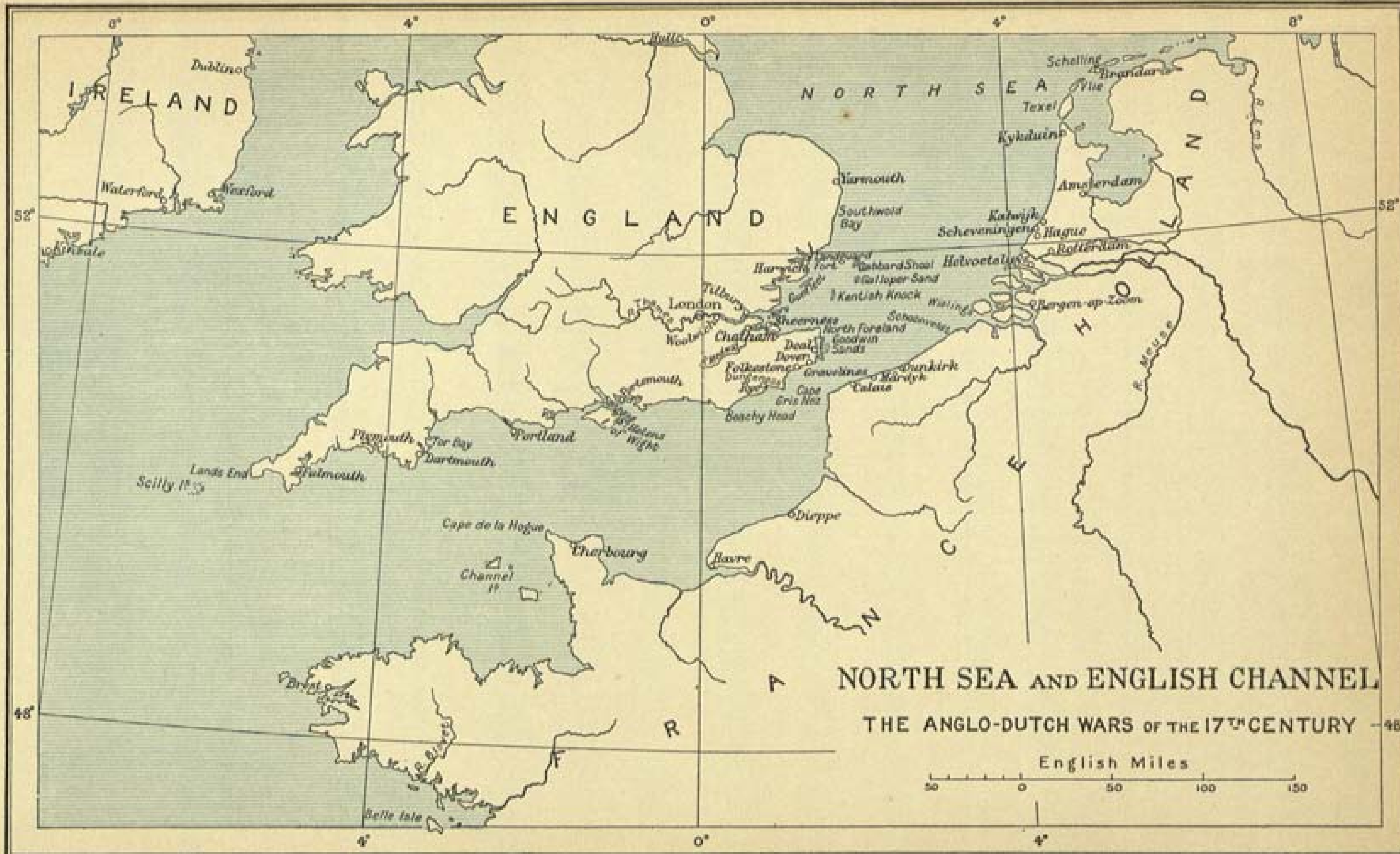
MAP 41

Europe in 1648



EUROPE IN 1648

Cambridge University Press.



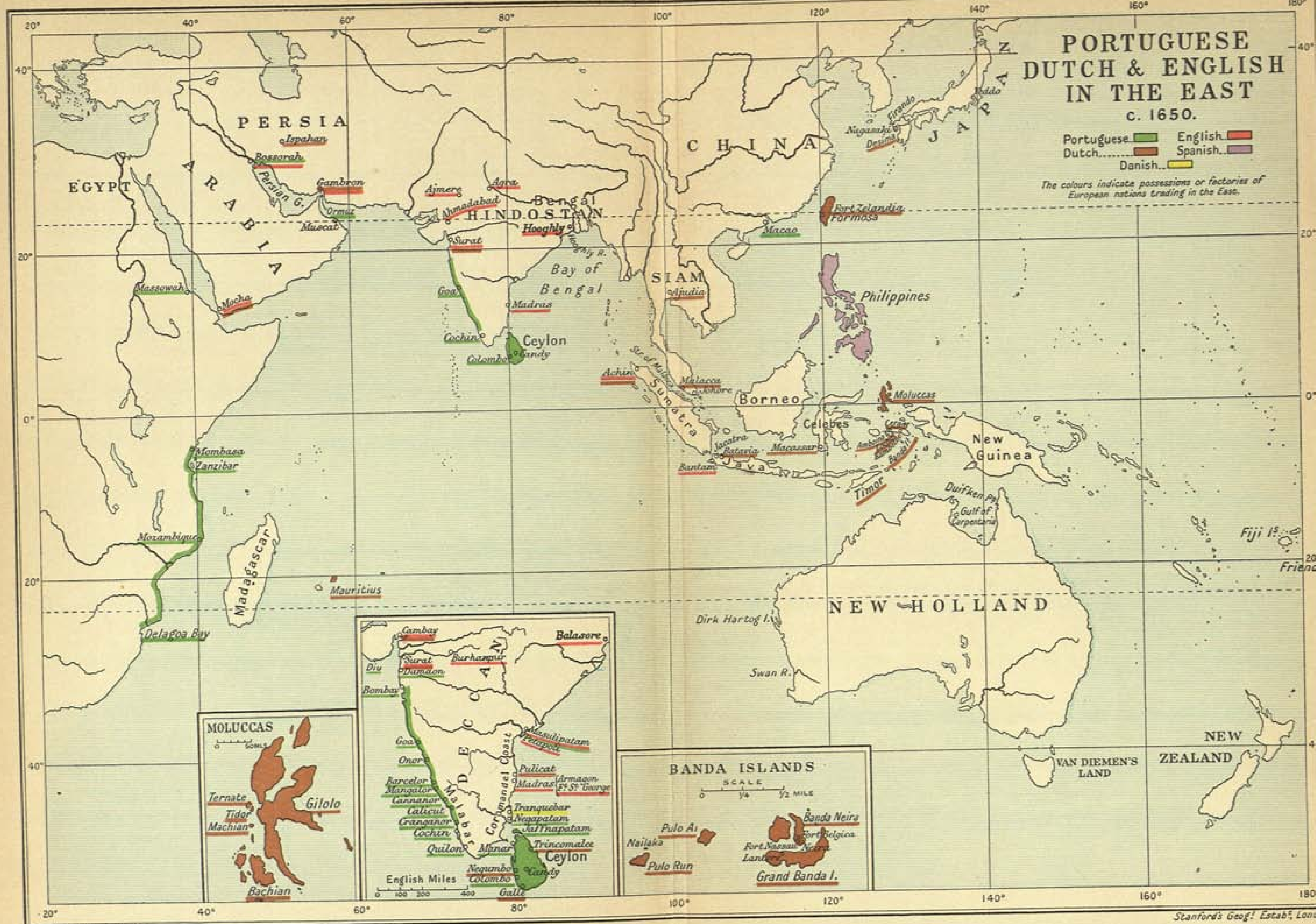
NORTH SEA AND ENGLISH CHANNEL

THE ANGLO-DUTCH WARS OF THE 17TH CENTURY

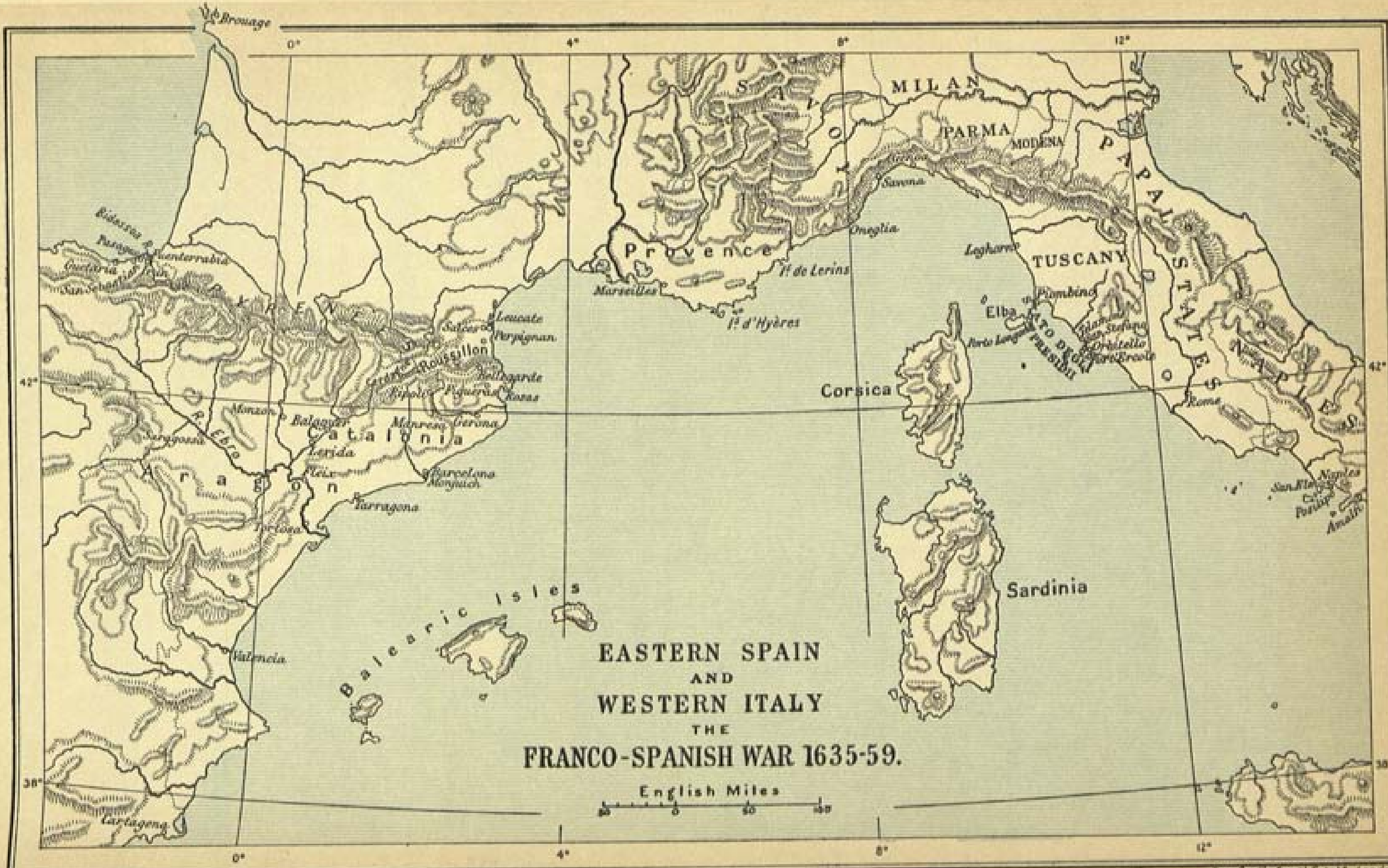
Map 42

MAP 43

Portuguese,
Dutch and English
in the East
c. 1650



Cambridge University Press.



Map 44

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.

MAP 45

The Netherlands

and

Western Germany

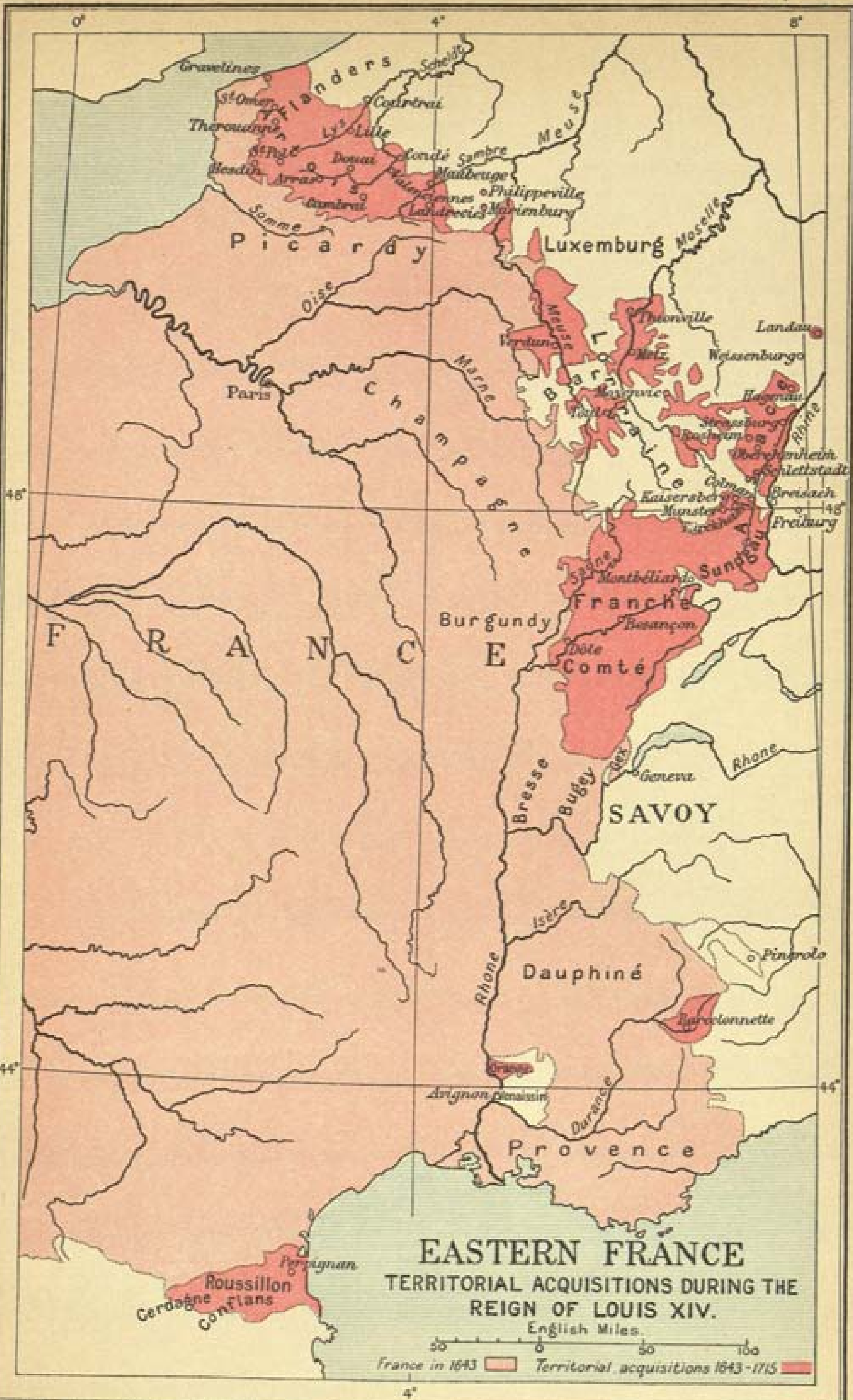
The Wars of 1648-1715



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geogl. Estabt., London.

Map 45


EASTERN FRANCE
TERRITORIAL ACQUISITIONS DURING THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.
English Miles
50 0 50 100
France in 1643
Territorial acquisitions 1643-1715
Gravelines
Flanders
St Omer
Therouanne
Courtrai
Lille
Lys
Scheldt
St Pol
Hesdin
Arras
Douai
Condé
Cambrai
Sambre
Maubeuge
Landrecies
Philippeville
Marienburg
Meuse
Somme
Picardy
Luxemburg
Moselle
Oise
Thionville
Landau
Verdun
Metz
Weissenburg
Paris
Marne
Champagne
Bar
Lorraine
Hagenau
Toul
Strassburg
Rhine
Oberehnheim
Schlettstadt
Colmar
Breisach
Kaisersberg
Münster
Freiburg
Sundgau
Saône
Montbéliard
Franche
Burgundy
Besançon
Dôle
Comté
FRANCE
Bresse
Bugey
Gex
Geneva
Rhone
SAVOY
Isère
Pinerolo
Dauphiné
Barcelonnette
Orange
Avignon
Durance
Provence
Perpignan
Roussillon
Cerdagne
Conflans
0°
4°
8°
48°
44°



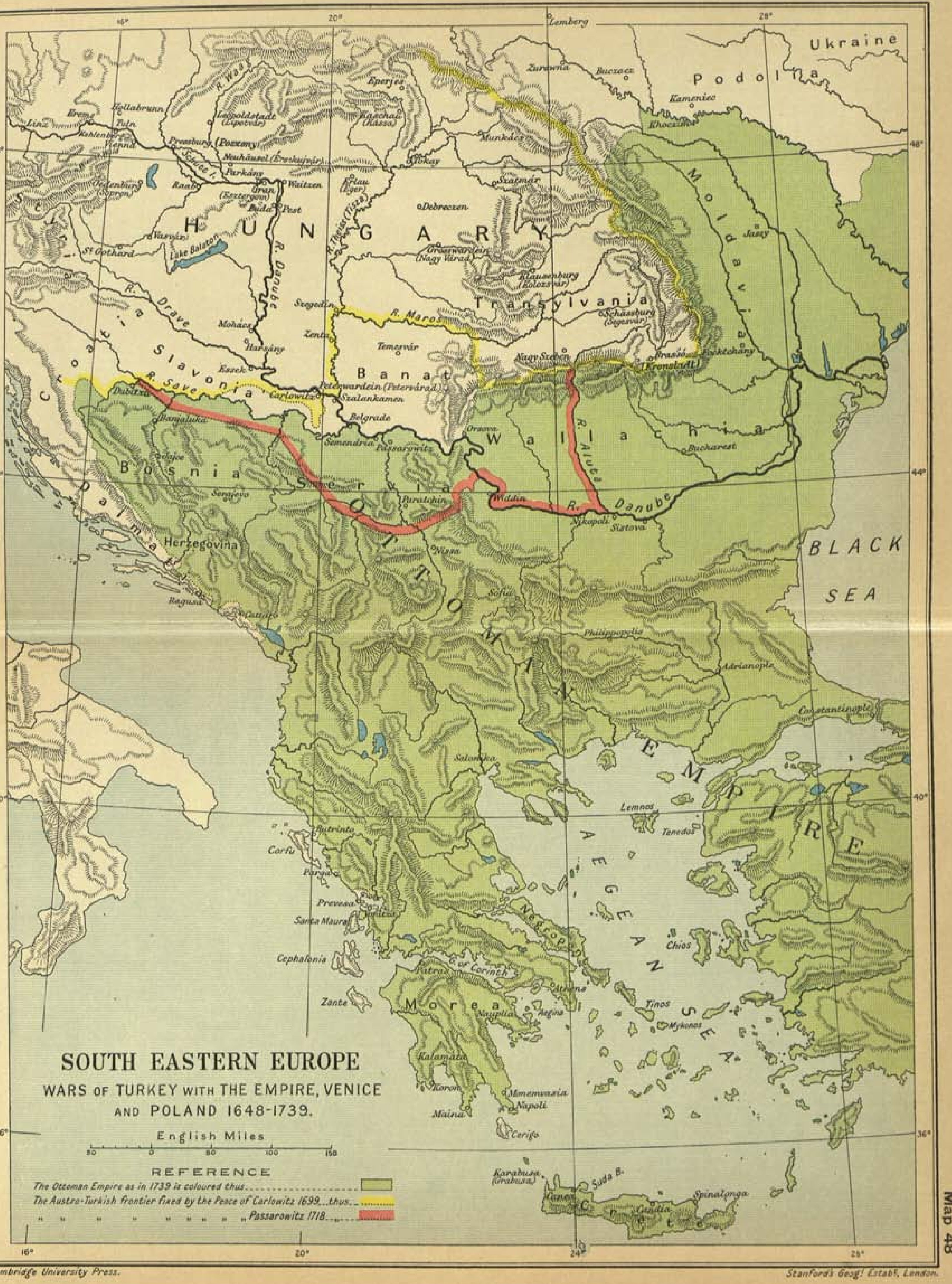
Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.

MAP 48

South Eastern Europe

Wars of Turkey with the Empire,
Venice and Poland 1648–1739



Map 48

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geogl Estabt, London.



NORTHERN ITALY

WARS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY 1701-1763.

Map 49

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 50

West European Waters

Anglo-French Naval Wars

1689–1763



Map 50

Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geogl Estabt London.

MAP 51

Europe in 1721

after the

Treaties of Utrecht & Nystad



Cambridge University Press.


RUSSIA IN 1725
English Miles
REFERENCE
The acquisitions of Russia during the reign of Peter the Great are coloured thus
Those south of the Terek were restored 1732-5
North Cape
Lapland
Finland
WHITE SEA
Archangel
R. Dwina
Arctic Circle
BALTIC SEA
Ingria
Livonia
Courland
Novgorod
Lithuania
White Russia
POLAND
Little Russia
Ukraine
Zaporogia
Don Cossacks
R. Don
R. Volga
R. Ural
Astrakhan
Nizhni Novgorod
Kazan
Azoff
Taganrog
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
Daghestan
Derbent
Georgia
Shirvan
Erzerum
Astrabad
PERSIA
Nova Zembla
Waigats
R. Ob
R. Terek

MAP 53

The Baltic Lands

1661



Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 54

Scandinavia, Russia and Poland

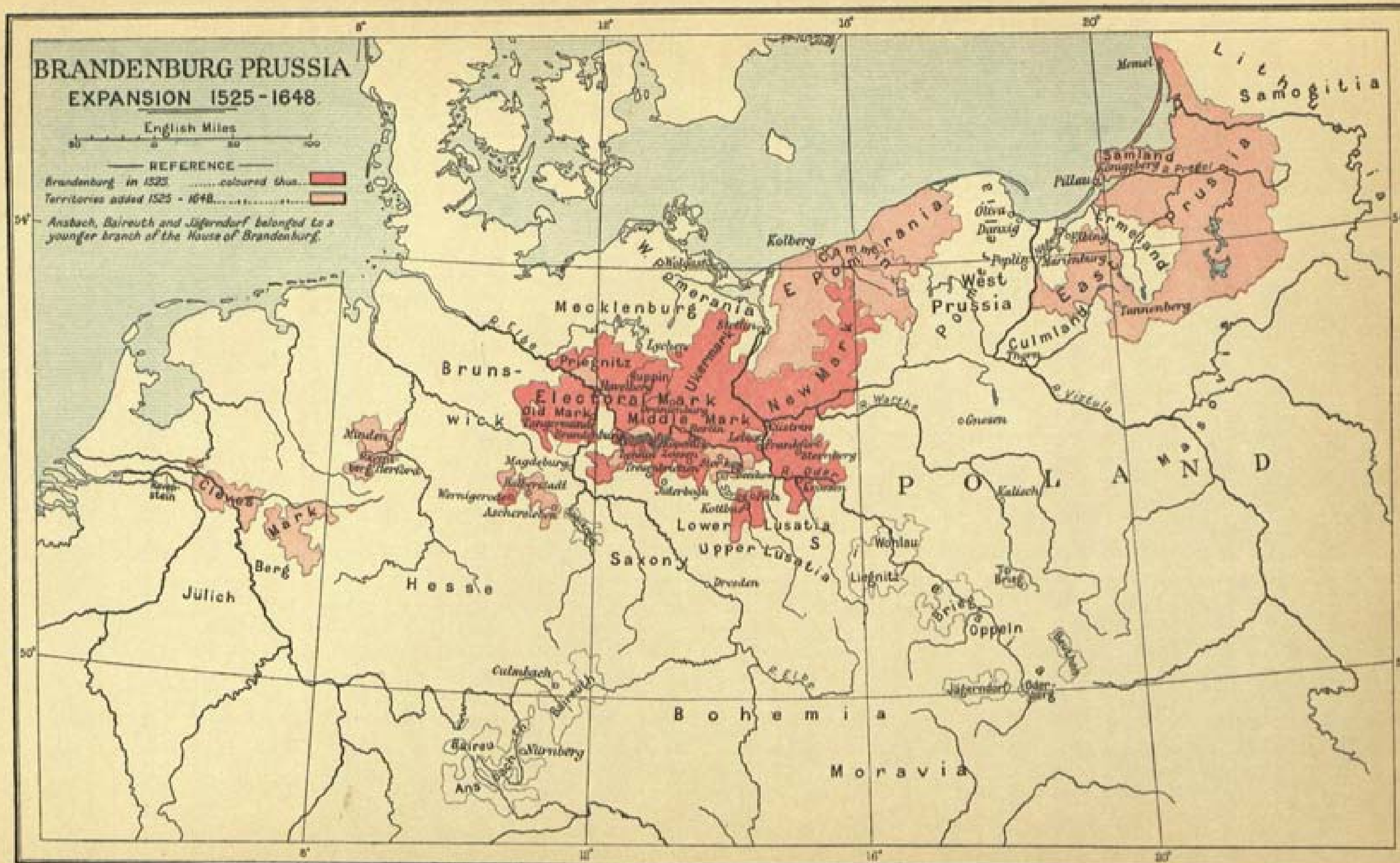
The Northern War, 1700–21

with inset of

Schleswig-Holstein



Stanford's Geogl Estabt, London



Map 55

Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London

MAP 56

Scotland

and

Northern England

Campaigns of the Pretenders


SCOTLAND
AND
NORTHERN ENGLAND
CAMPAIGNS OF THE PRETENDERS
English Miles
20 10 0 20 40 60
8°
6°
4°
2°
0°
58°
56°
54°
OUTER HEBRIDES
Lewis
Stornoway
N. Uist
S. Uist
Eriska
Skye
Mull
Moray Firth
Dunrobin
Cullen
Gordon Castle
Nairn
Culloden
Inverness
Peterhead
Huntly
Inverurie
Aberdeen
R. Spey
Kildrummy
R. Dee
Fort Augustus
Badenoch
Braemar
Ruthven
Invercy
Glenfinnan
Fort William
Lochaber
Blair Castle
Killiecrankie
Brechin
Montrose
Arbroath
Dundee
Dunkeld
Mull
Strathfillan
Crieff
Perth
Muthill
Auchterarder
Ardoch
Ochil Hills
Crail
Pittenweem
Leven
Elie
Sheriffmuir
Stirling
Firth of Forth
North Berwick
Bannockburn
Falkirk
Dunbar
Dumbarton
Linlithgow
Haddington
Glasgow
Paisley
Hamilton
Clyde
Berwick
R. Tweed
Kelso
Wooler
Douglas
Hawick
Jedburgh
Cheviot Hills
Warkworth
Sanquhar
Lochmaben
Langholm
Dumfries
Newcastle
Brampton
Hexham
R. Tyne
Carlisle
Durham
Penrith
Eden
Appleby
Kendal
Lancaster
R. Ribble
York
Leeds
R. Ouse
Preston
Wigan
Manchester
Doncaster
Stockport
Sheffield
Macclesfield
R. Trent
Newcastle under Lyme
Derby
Nottingham
Stafford
Lichfield
Coventry
Map 56

MAP 57

Central Europe

Wars of Frederick the Great



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MAP 58

Poland

The Partitions



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London

MAP 59

Prussia

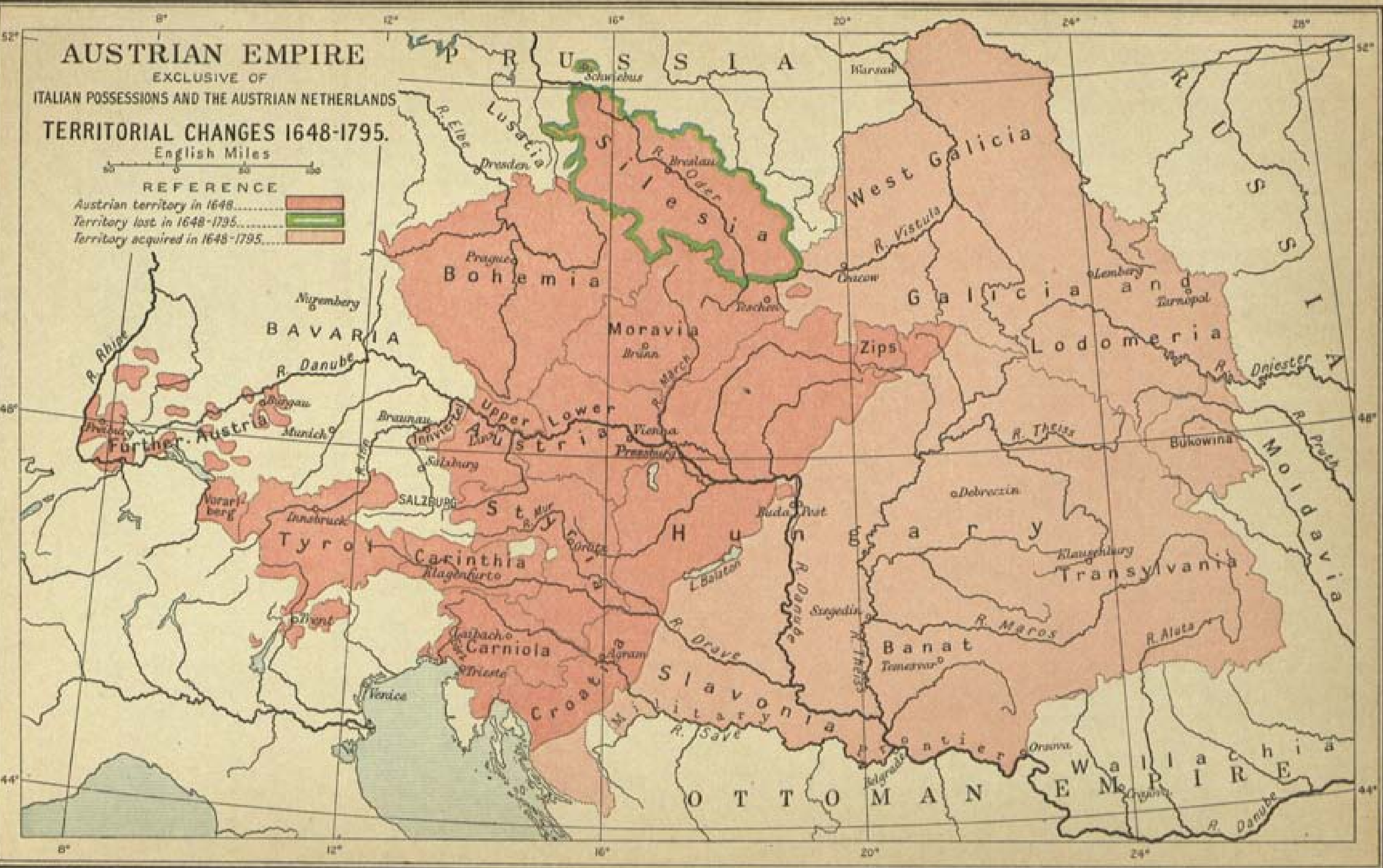
Territorial Expansion

1648-1795



Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geog' Estab', London



Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 61

Russia

Territorial Expansion 1725–1795



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Map 61

MAP 62

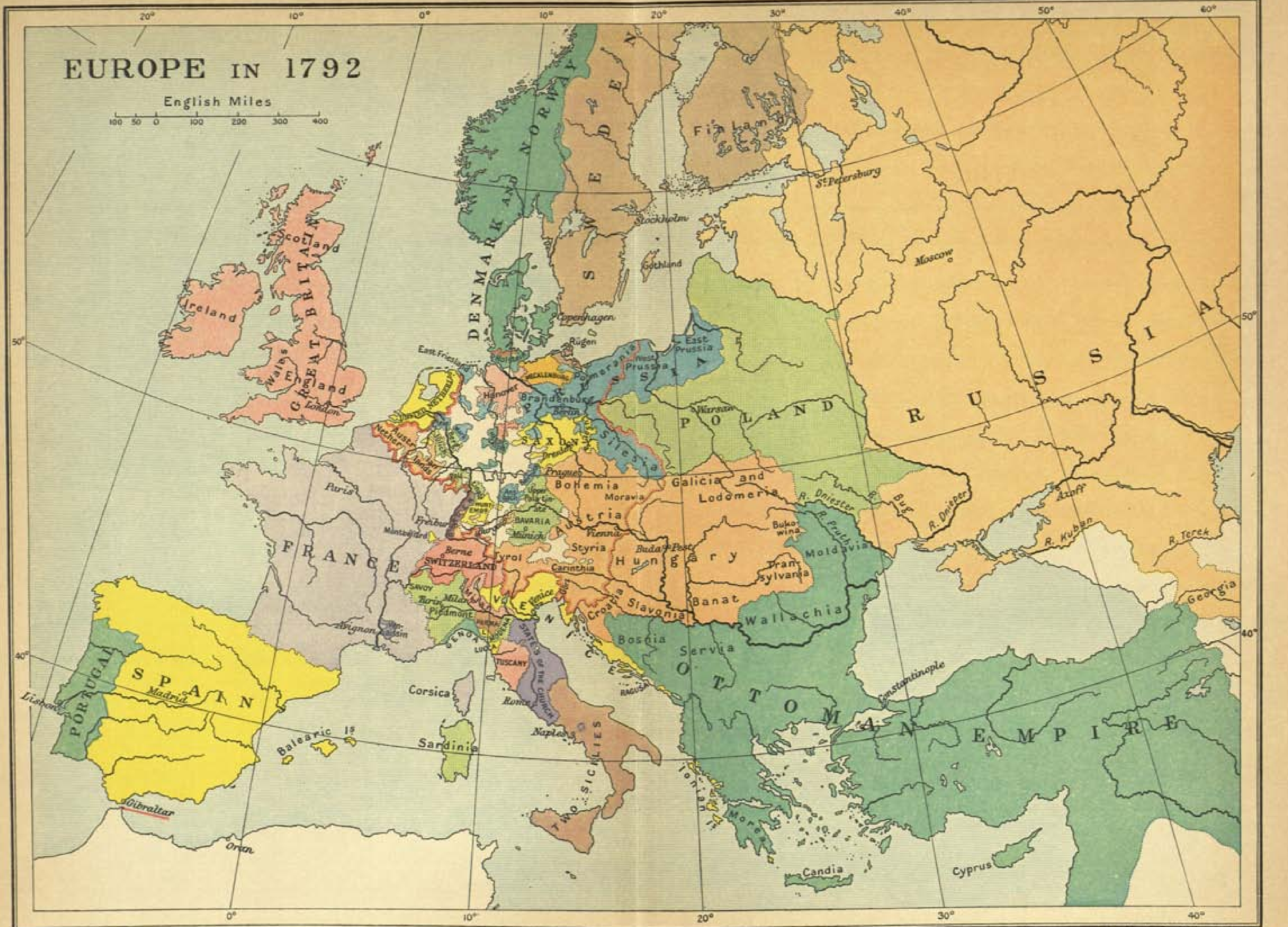
The Empire
and the
Netherlands
c. 1792



Cambridge University Press. Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 63

Europe in 1792


EUROPE IN 1792
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300 400
Ireland
Scotland
GREAT BRITAIN
Wales
England
London
DENMARK AND NORWAY
SWEDEN
Stockholm
Gothland
Copenhagen
Rügen
Finland
St Petersburg
Moscow
RUSSIA
East Friesland
Hanover
Brandenburg
Berlin
Pomerania
West Prussia
East Prussia
PRUSSIA
MECKLENBURG
SAXONY
Dresden
Silesia
Warsaw
POLAND
Galicia and Lodomeria
R. Dniester
R. Dnieper
R. Pruth
Bug
Azoff
R. Kuban
R. Terek
Georgia
Prague
Bohemia
Moravia
Austria
Vienna
BAVARIA
Munich
Styria
Carinthia
Tyrol
Buda Pest
Hungary
Bukowina
Moldavia
Transylvania
Banat
Wallachia
Croatia
Slavonia
Bosnia
Servia
RAGUSA
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Constantinople
Morea
Ionian Is.
Candia
Cyprus
Paris
FRANCE
Freiburg
Montbéliard
Berne
SWITZERLAND
SAVOY
Turin
Piedmont
Milan
VENICE
Venice
GENOA
LUCCA
TUSCANY
STATES OF THE CHURCH
Rome
Naples
TWO SICILIES
Corsica
Sardinia
Avignon
Balearic Is.
Austrian Netherlands
SPAIN
Madrid
PORTUGAL
Lisbon
Gibraltar
Oran
20° 10° 0° 10° 20° 30° 40° 50° 60°
50° 40°
0° 10° 20° 30° 40°

MAP 64

India

The Beginnings of British Dominion



Map 64

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geogl Estabt, London.

MAP 65

Africa

in the

XVIIth and XVIIIth centuries

with inset

The Gold and Slave Coasts



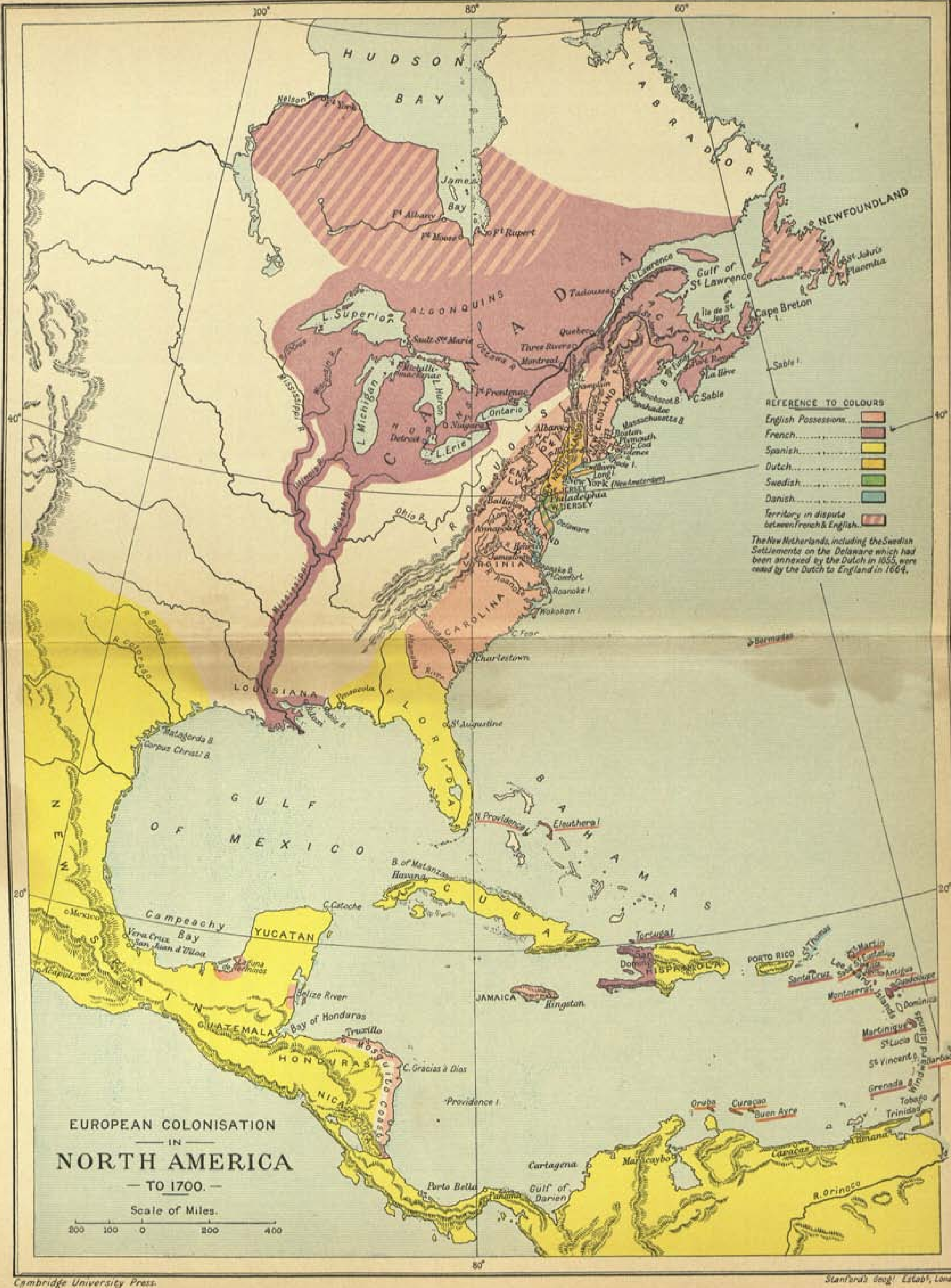
Map 65

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geogl Estabt London

MAP 66

European Colonisation
in
North America
to 1700



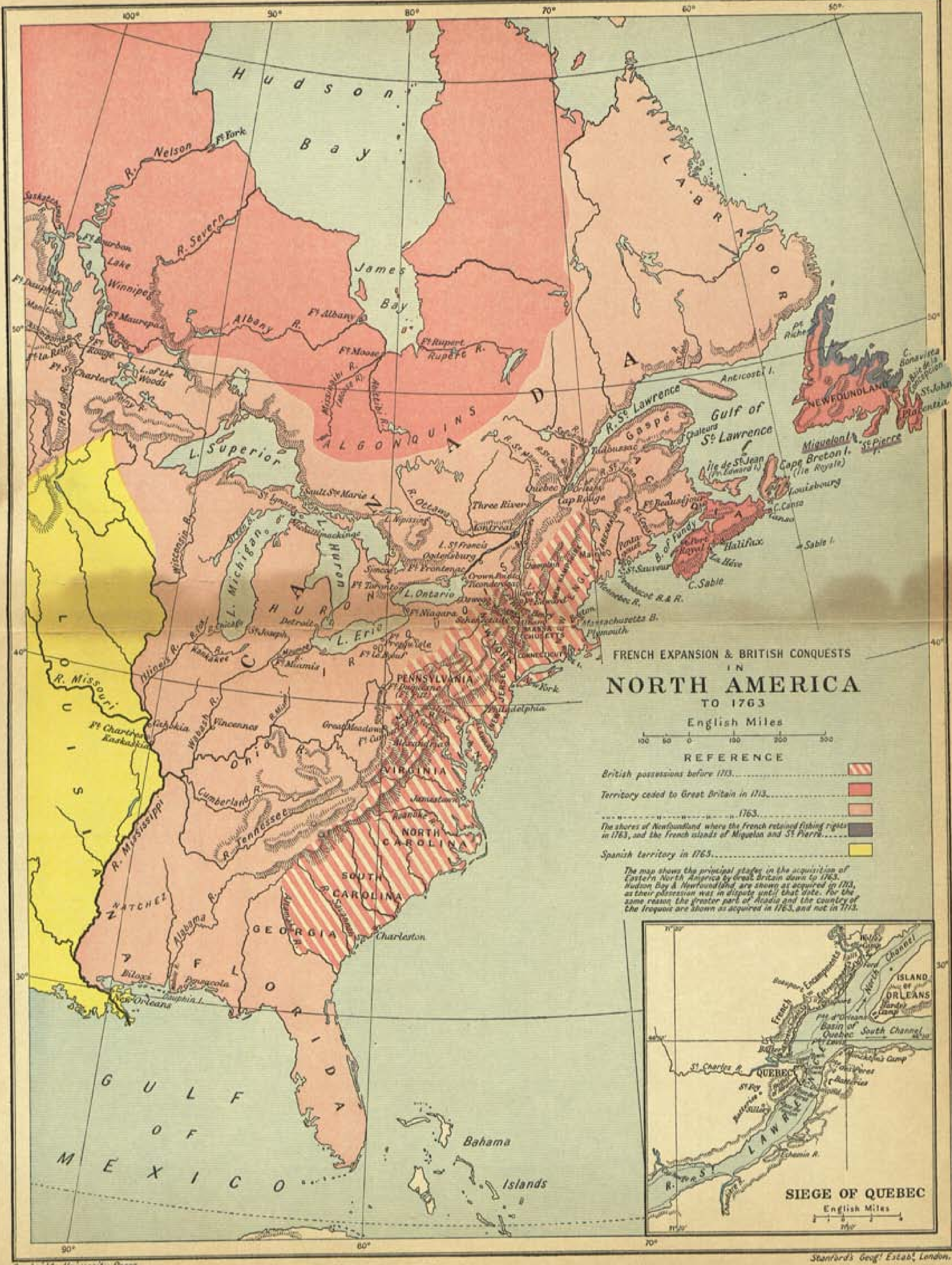
Cambridge University Press.

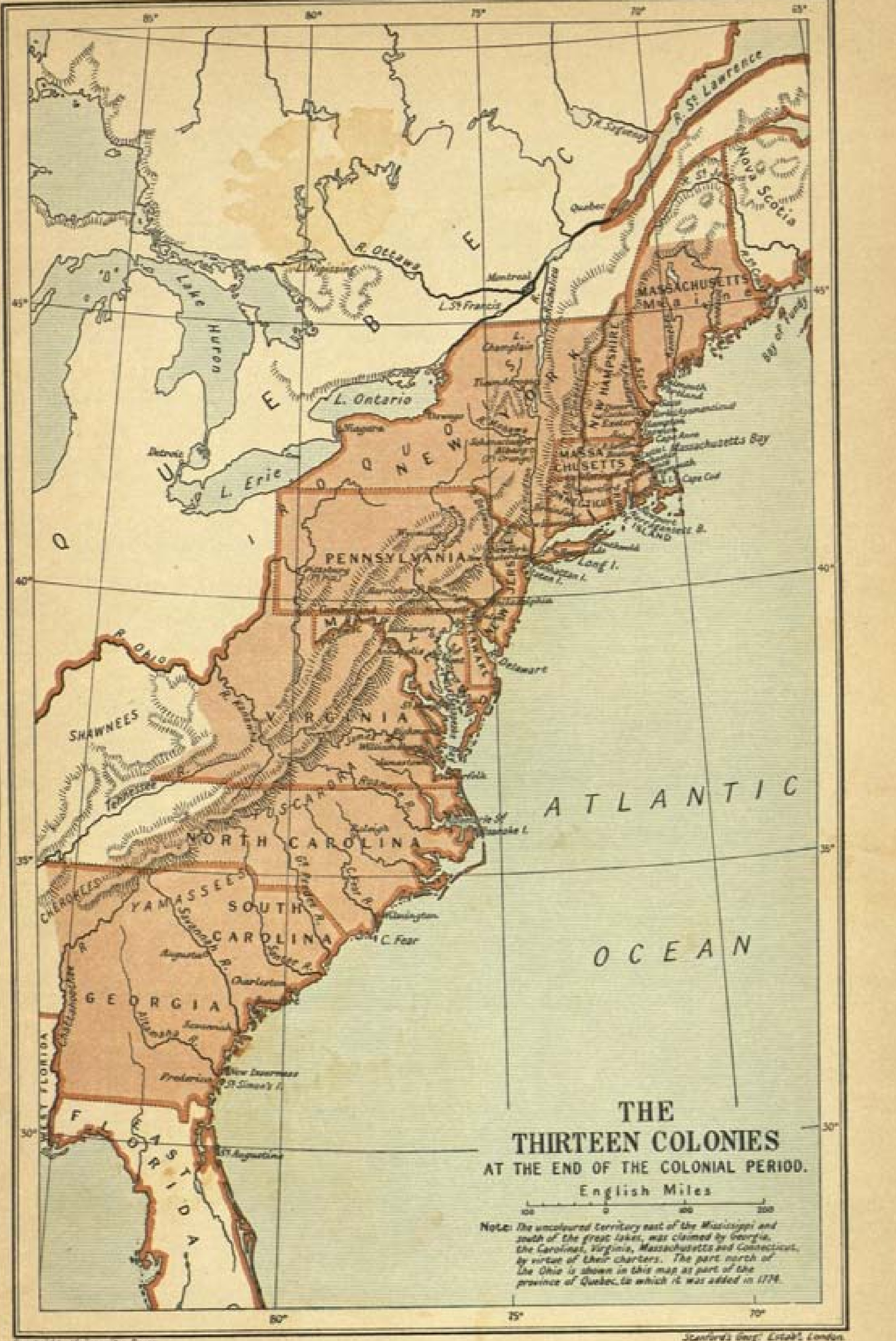
Stanford's Geog! Estabt, London

Map 66

MAP 67

French Expansion
and British Conquests
in
North America
to 1763
with inset
Quebec


FRENCH EXPANSION & BRITISH CONQUESTS IN
NORTH AMERICA
TO 1763
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300
REFERENCE
British possessions before 1713
Territory ceded to Great Britain in 1713
" " " 1763
The shores of Newfoundland where the French retained fishing rights in 1763, and the French islands of Miquelon and St Pierre
Spanish territory in 1763
The map shows the principal stages in the acquisition of Eastern North America by Great Britain down to 1763. Hudson Bay & Newfoundland are shown as acquired in 1713, as their possession was in dispute until that date. For the same reason the greater part of Acadia and the country of the Iroquois are shown as acquired in 1763, and not in 1713.
Hudson Bay
James Bay
LABRADOR
CANADA
ALGONQUINS
HURONS
IROQUOIS
ACADIA
NEWFOUNDLAND
Gulf of St Lawrence
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Ontario
L. Erie
PENNSYLVANIA
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
LOUISIANA
FLORIDA
GULF OF MEXICO
Bahama Islands
R. Mississippi
R. Missouri
Ohio R.
Quebec
Montreal
Three Rivers
Louisbourg
Halifax
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Charleston
New Orleans
Pensacola
Detroit
SIEGE OF QUEBEC
English Miles
QUEBEC
ISLAND OF ORLEANS
North Channel
South Channel
Basin of Quebec
St Charles R.
Map 67



THE
THIRTEEN COLONIES
AT THE END OF THE COLONIAL PERIOD.

English Miles

100 0 100 200

Note: *The uncoloured territory east of the Mississippi and south of the great lakes, was claimed by Georgia, the Carolinas, Virginia, Massachusetts and Connecticut, by virtue of their charters. The part north of the Ohio is shown in this map as part of the province of Quebec, to which it was added in 1774.*

Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geogl. Estabt. London.

MAP 69

West Indies in 1763



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estabt London

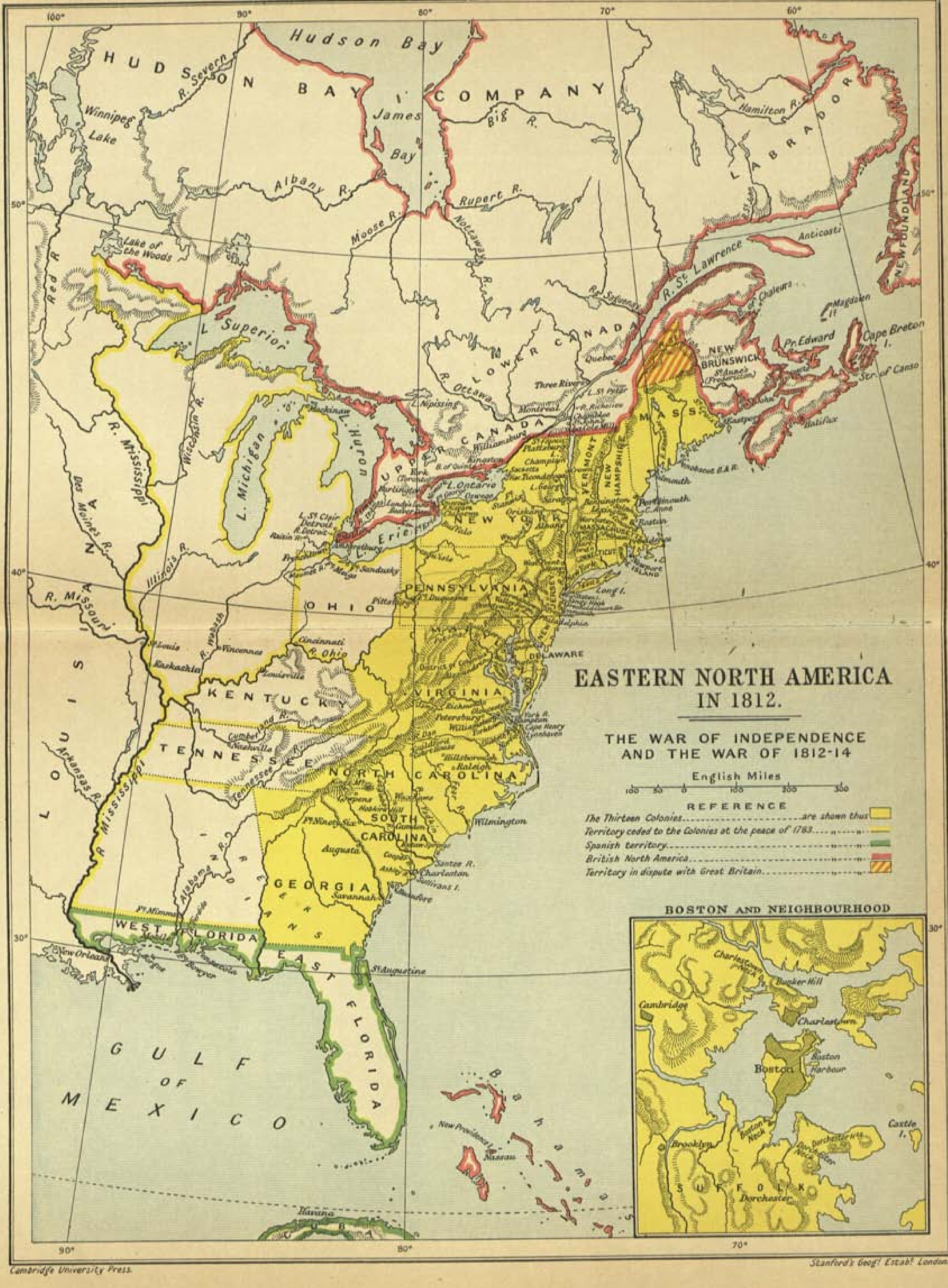
MAP 70

Eastern North America in 1812

The War of Independence and the War of 1812–14

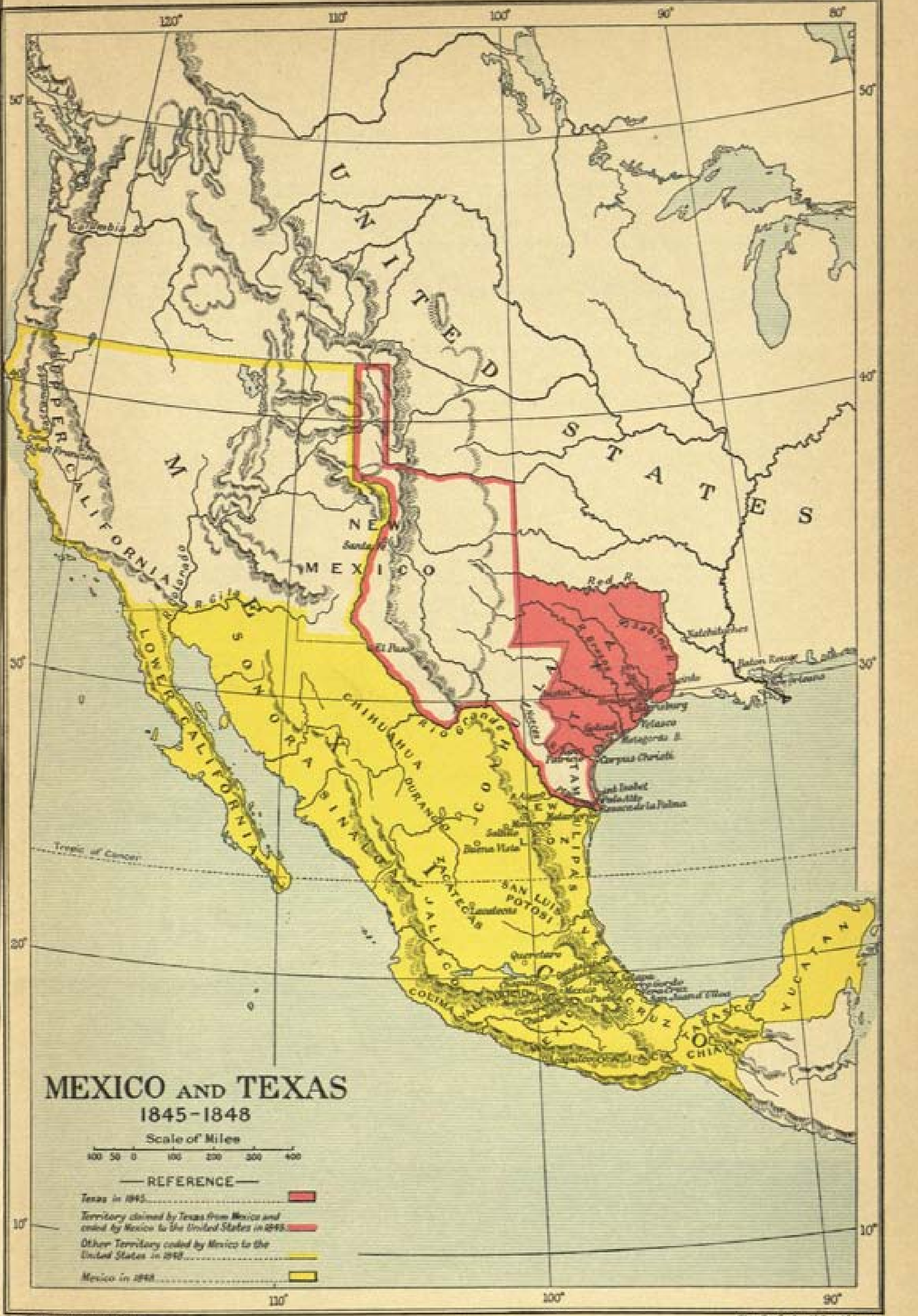
with inset

Boston



Cambridge University Press. Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

Map 70



Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

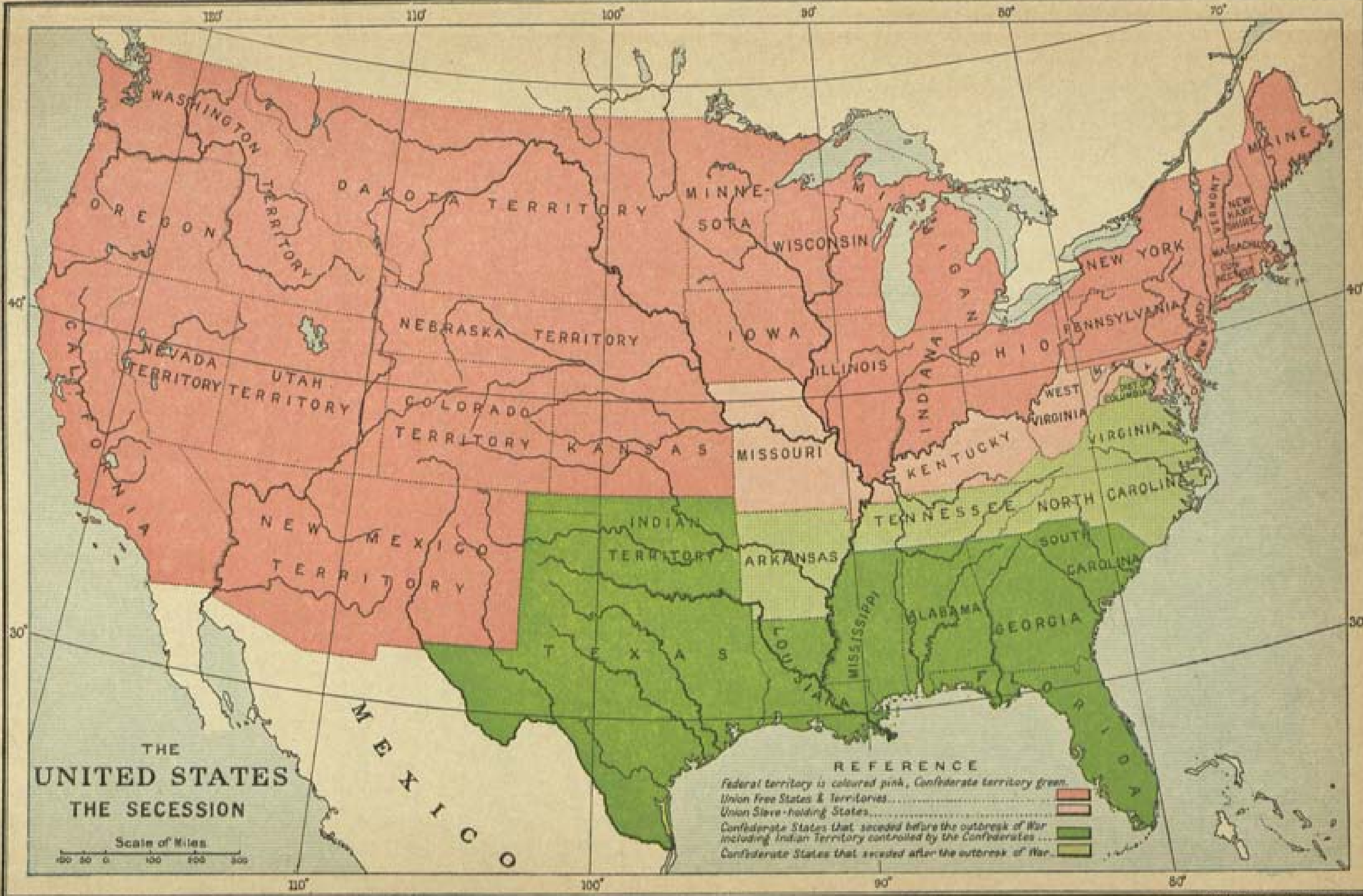
MAP 72

Expansion
of the
United States



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London

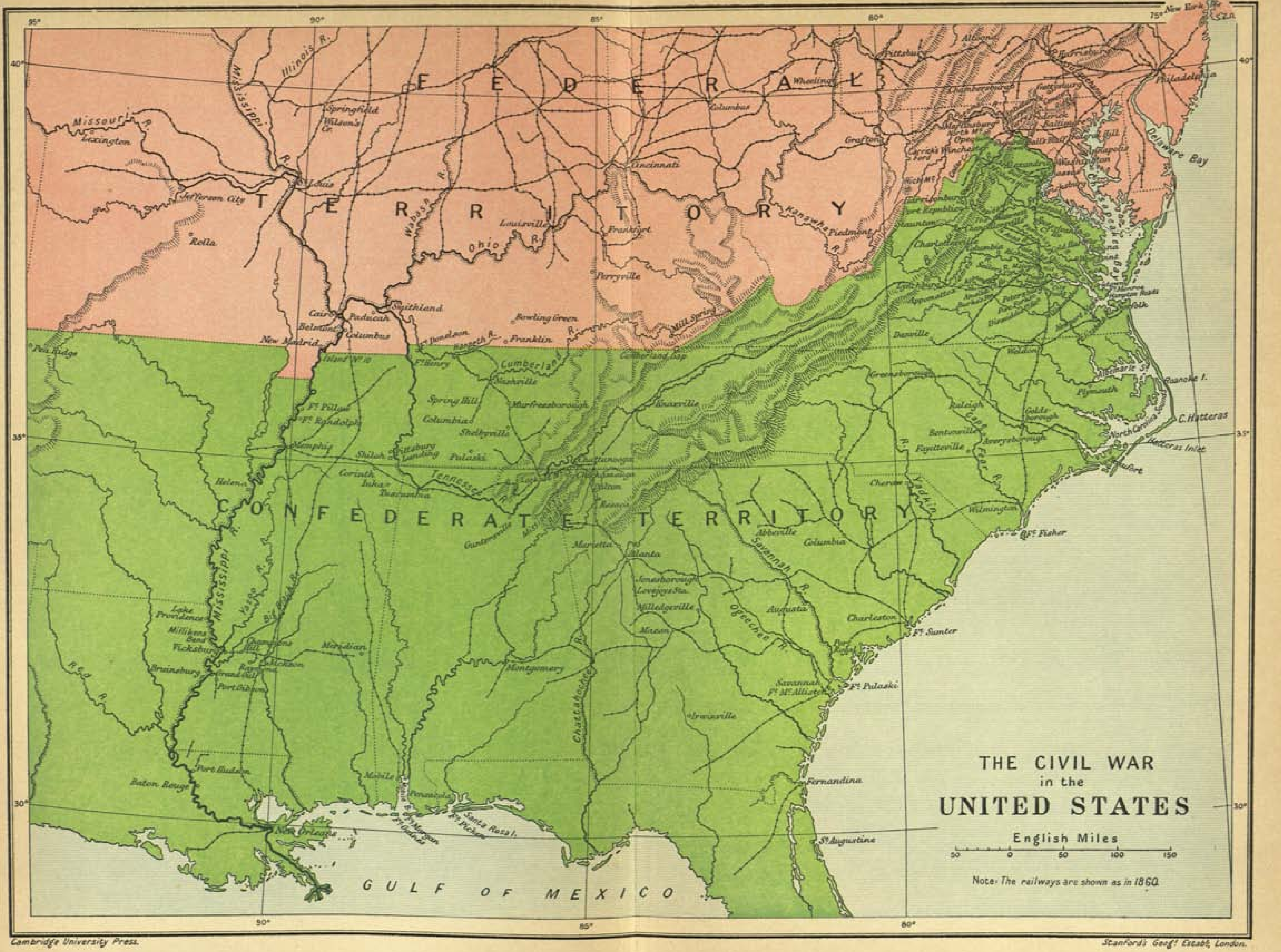
Map 73

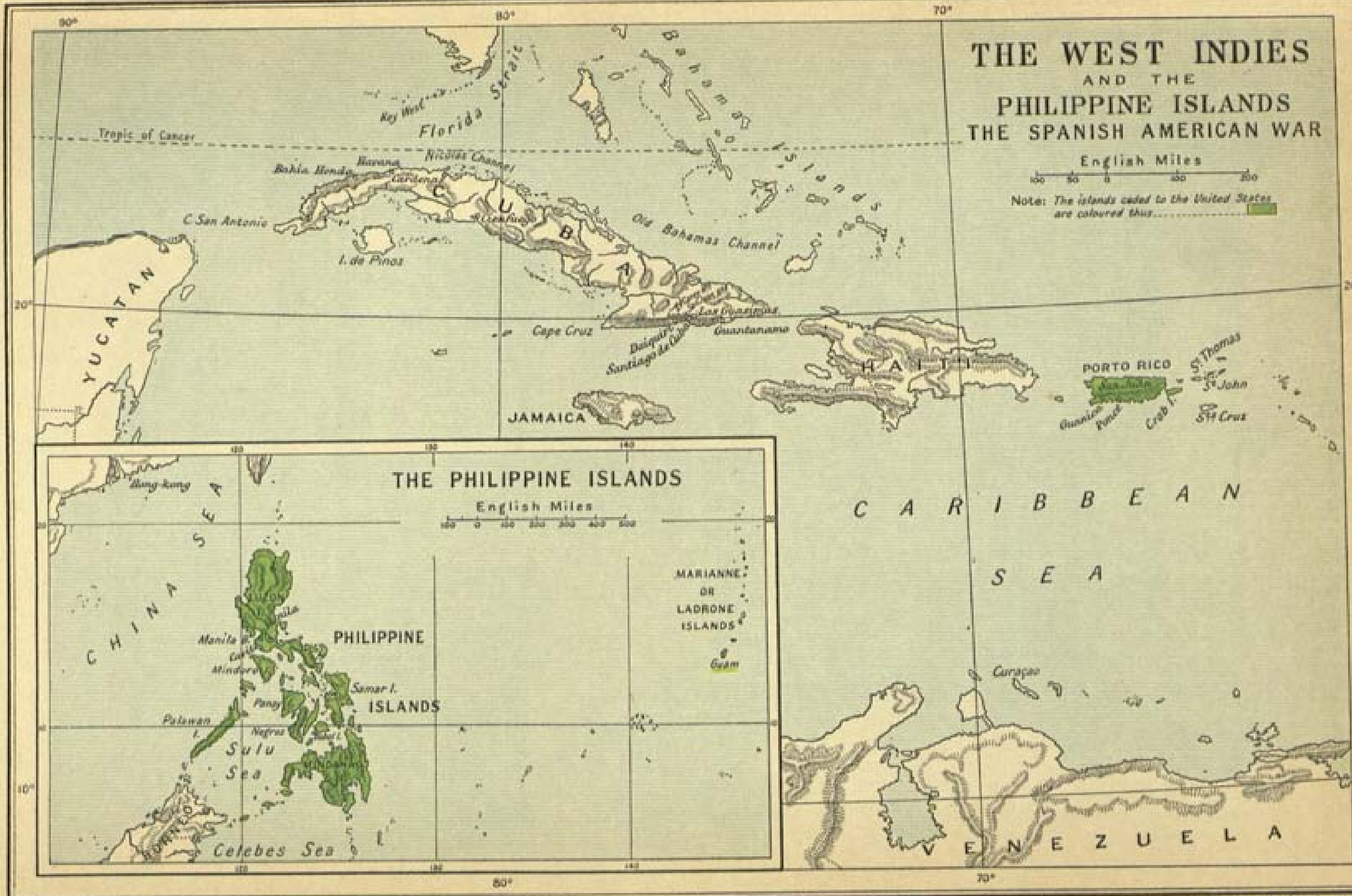
MAP 74

The Civil War

in the

United States

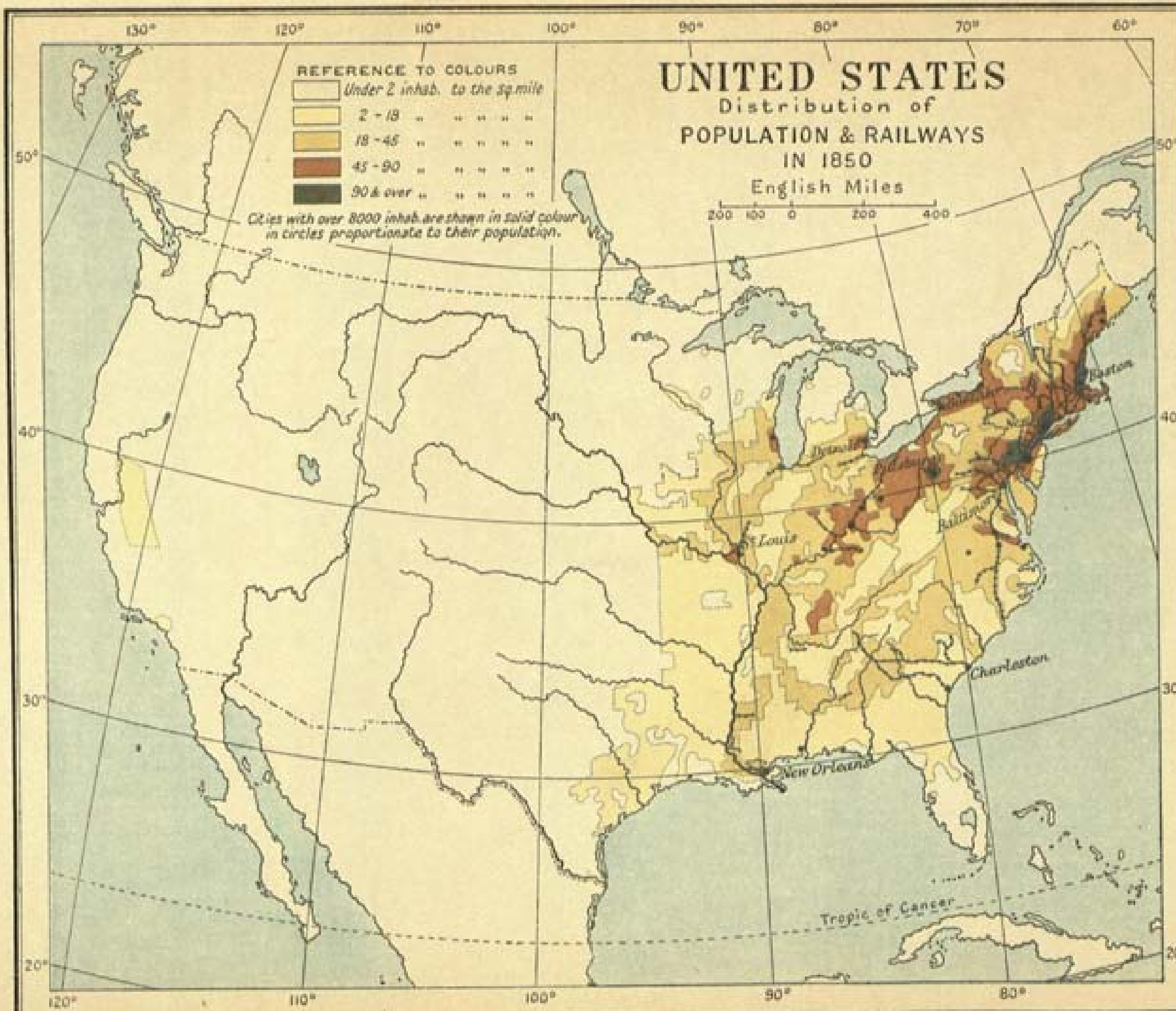

THE CIVIL WAR
in the
UNITED STATES
English Miles
50 0 50 100 150
Note: The railways are shown as in 1860.
FEDERAL TERRITORY
CONFEDERATE TERRITORY
GULF OF MEXICO
Delaware Bay
Philadelphia
Pittsburg
Wheeling
Columbus
Cincinnati
Louisville
Frankfort
Perryville
Springfield
Wilson's Cr.
Lexington
Jefferson City
Rolla
Missouri R.
Illinois R.
Mississippi R.
Ohio R.
Wabash R.
Kanawha R.
Cairo
Paducah
Belmont
Columbus
Smithland
New Madrid
Island No. 10
Bowling Green
Franklin
Mill Spring
Cumberland Gap
Cumberland R.
Nashville
Ft. Henry
Spring Hill
Murfreesborough
Columbia
Shelbyville
Pulaski
Knoxville
Chattanooga
Memphis
Ft. Pillow
Ft. Randolph
Shiloh
Pittsburg Landing
Corinth
Iuka
Tuscumbia
Tennessee R.
Helena
Resaca
Marietta
Atlanta
Jonesborough
Lovejoy's Sta.
Milledgeville
Macon
Augusta
Abbeville
Columbia
Savannah R.
Ogeechee R.
Charleston
Ft. Sumter
Port Royal
Savannah
Ft. McAllister
Ft. Pulaski
Irwinsville
Fernandina
St. Augustine
Chattahoochee R.
Montgomery
Meridian
Jackson
Vicksburg
Milliken's Bend
Lake Providence
Champion's Hill
Raymond
Grand Gulf
Port Gibson
Bruinsburg
Port Hudson
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
Mobile
Pensacola
Santa Rosa I.
Ft. Pickens
Red R.
Yazoo R.
Big Black R.
Wilmington
Ft. Fisher
Cheraw
Fayetteville
Bentonville
Averysborough
Raleigh
Goldsborough
Greensborough
Danville
Weldon
Plymouth
Roanoke I.
C. Hatteras
Hatteras Inlet
Beaufort
Lynchburg
Appomattox
Piedmont
Staunton
Grafton
Harrisburg
Chambersburg
Gettysburg
Baltimore
Washington
Alexandria
Martinsburg
Harpers Ferry
New York
Pea Ridge



Map 75

Cambridge University Press

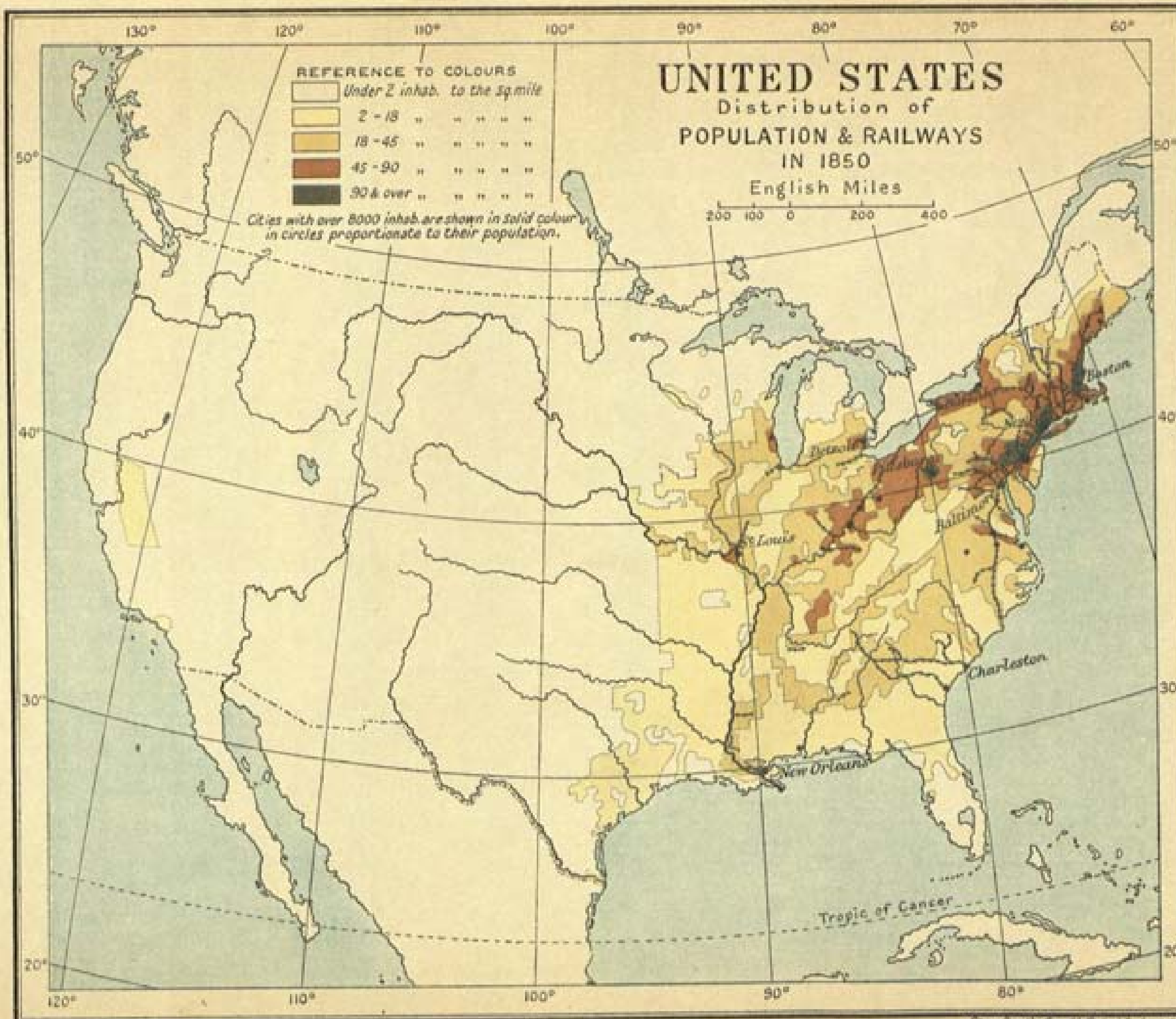
Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

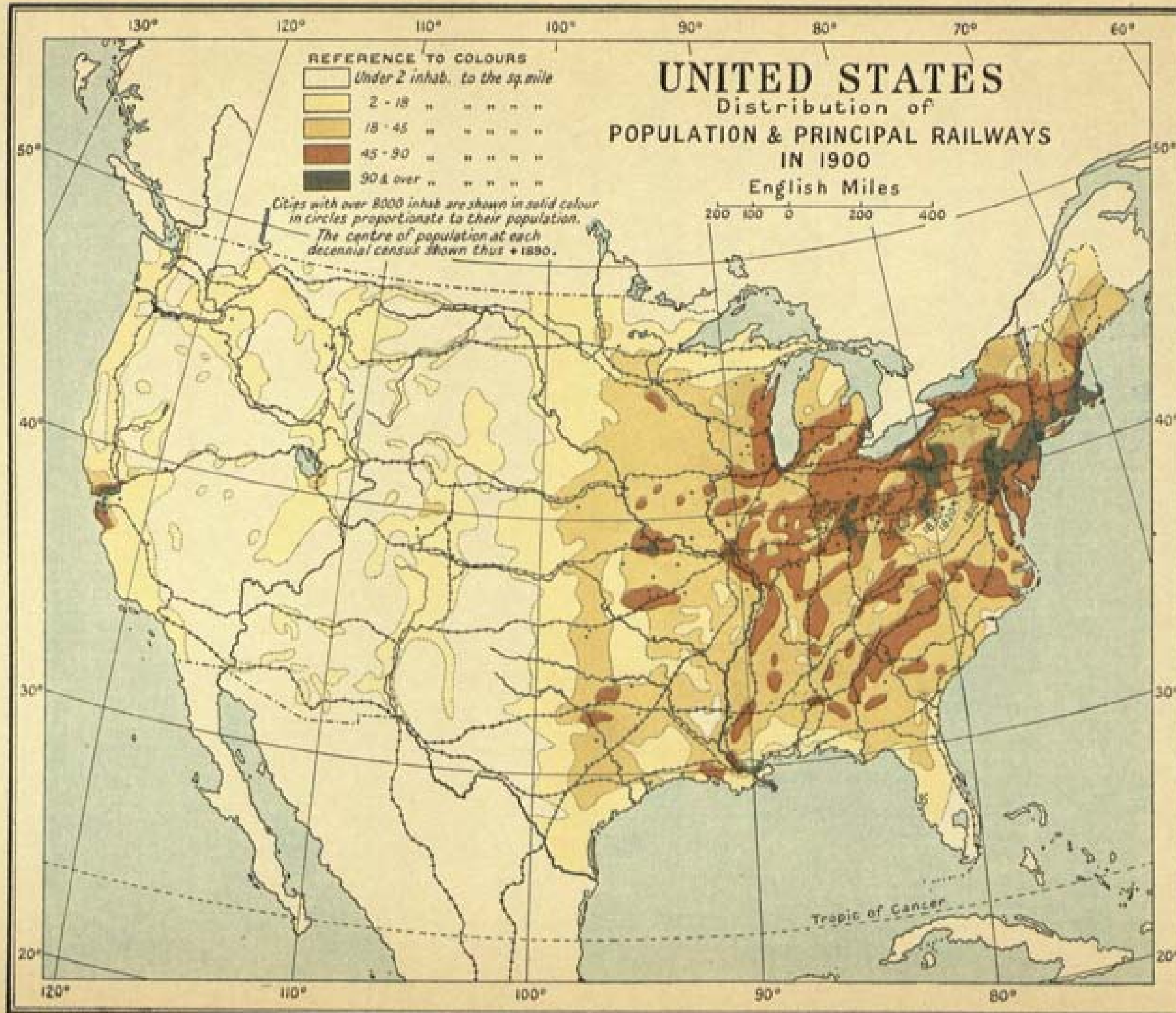
Map 76



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

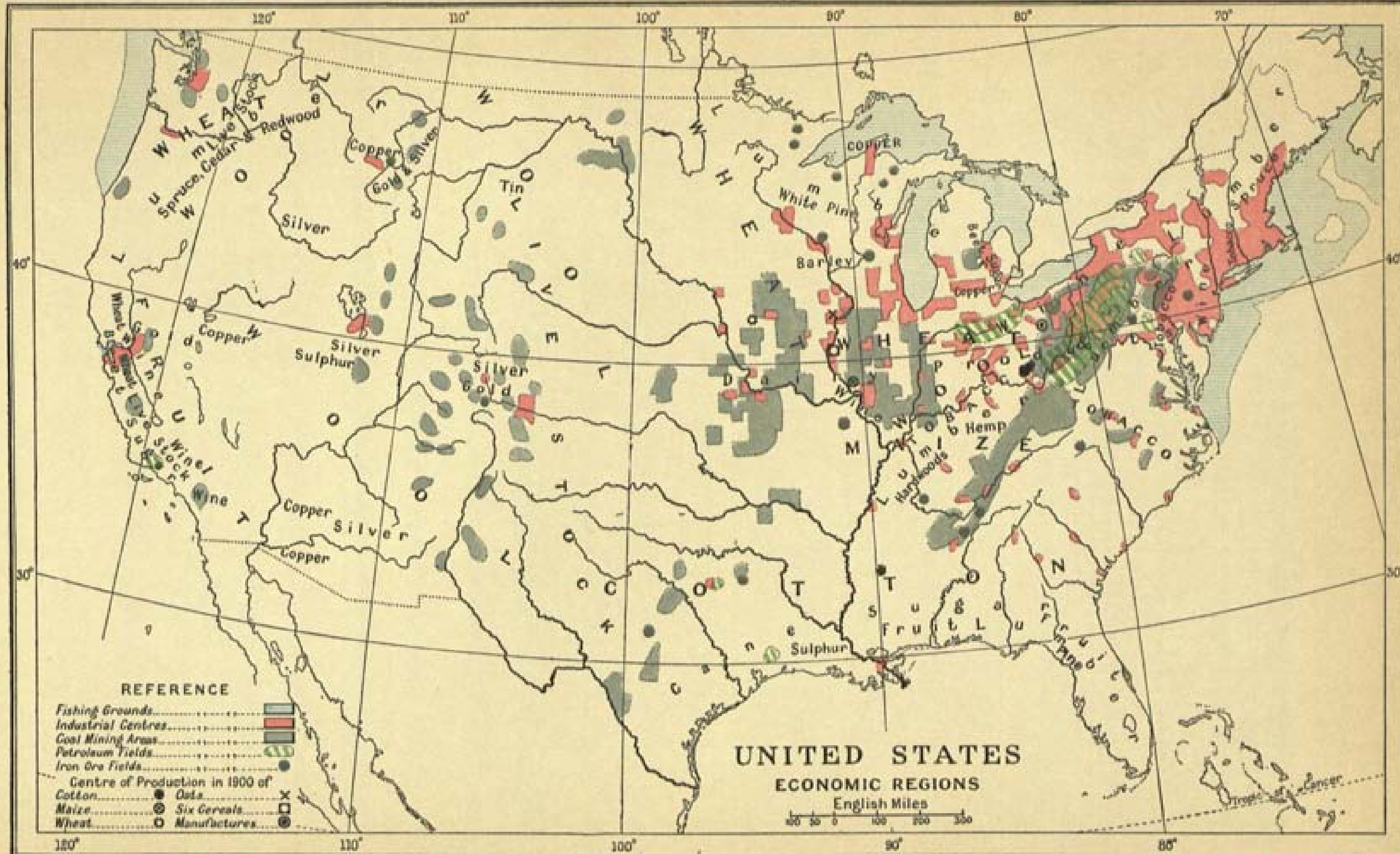
Map 76



Map 77

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estabt, London.



Map 78

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.

MAP 79

France
before the
Revolution

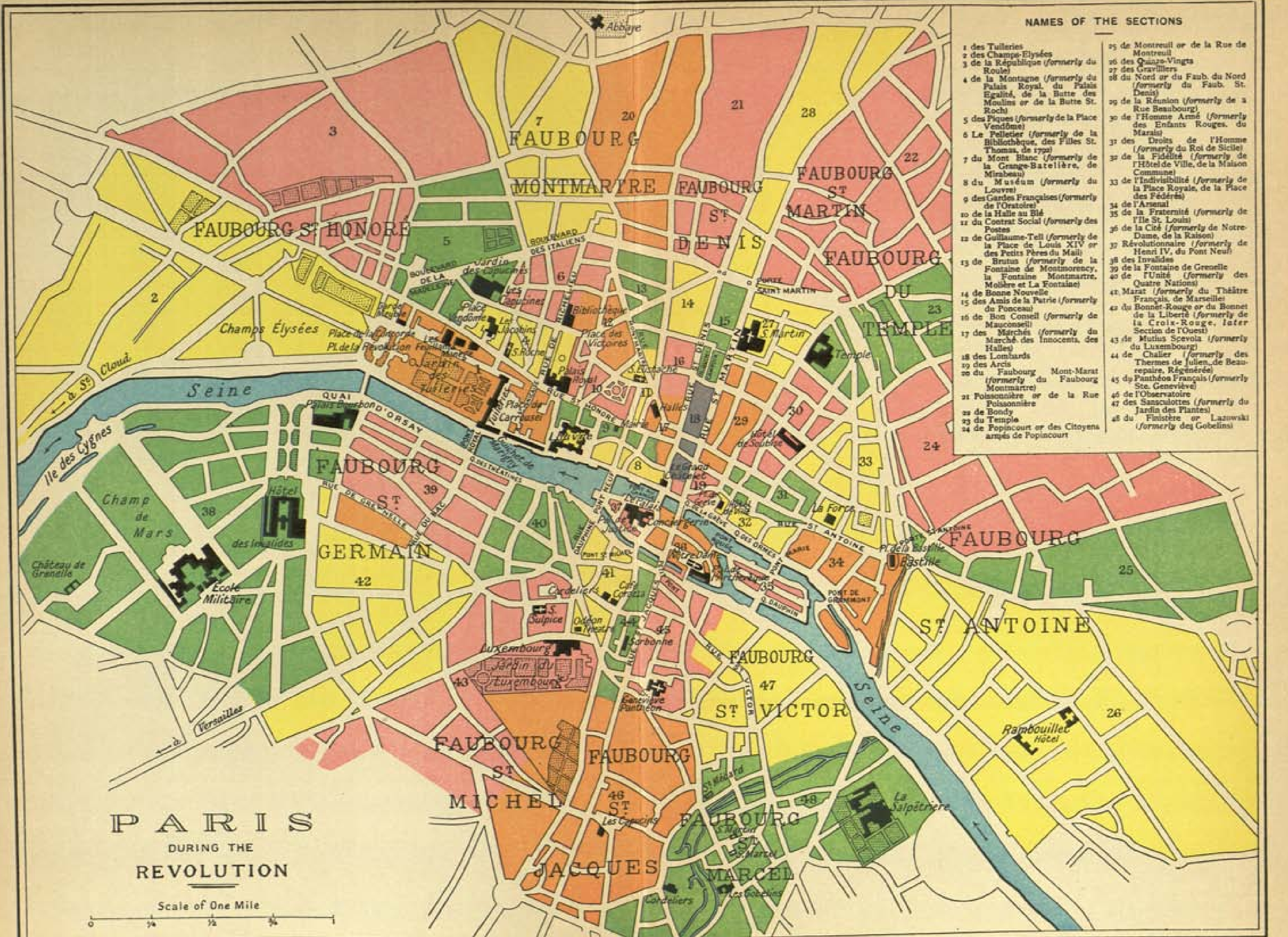

FRANCE
BEFORE THE
REVOLUTION
English Miles
50 0 50 100
REFERENCE
Boundaries of Governments
Territorial acquisitions 1715-89
Papal Territory
On the same scale.
CORSICA
Bastia
FLANDERS
ARTOIS
HAINAULT
PICARDY
NORMANDY
ISLE OF FRANCE
CHAMPAGNE AND BRIE
VERDUN
MESSIN
LORRAINE
ALSACE
BRITTANY
MAINE AND PERCHE
ORLÉANAIS
ANJOU
TOURAINE
SAUMUR
BERRY
NIVERNAIS
BURGUNDY
FRANCHE COMTÉ
POITOU
AUNIS
LA MARCHE
BOURBONNAIS
LYONNAIS
ANGOUMOIS & SAINTONGE
LIMOUSIN
AUVERGNE
DAUPHINÉ
GUIENNE AND GASCONY
LANGUEDOC
PROVENCE
NAVARRE & BEARN
ROUSSILLON
Périgord
Rouergue
Quercy
Agenois
Comminges
Cotentin
Penthièvre
Perche
R. Loire
R. Seine
R. Gironde
R. Garonne
R. Dordogne
R. Rhine
R. Meuse
R. Moselle
R. Danube
R. Po
R. Ebro
R. Rhone
R. Saône
R. Adour
Paris
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Lille
Arras
Amiens
Dieppe
Rouen
Havre
Caen
Cherbourg
Jersey
Rennes
Brest
Ushant
Nantes
Angers
Tours
Orleans
Chartres
Troyes
Sens
Reims
Châlons
Metz
Nancy
Strassburg
Basle
Dijon
Besançon
Lyons
Geneva
Grenoble
Avignon
Marseilles
Toulon
Nîmes
Montpellier
Narbonne
Perpignan
Toulouse
Bordeaux
Bayonne
Poitiers
Limoges
Bourges
Nevers
Clermont
Belle Isle
I. de Ré
I. of Oléron
Is. de Lérins
Is. d'Hyères
Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.

MAP 80

Paris

during the

Revolution

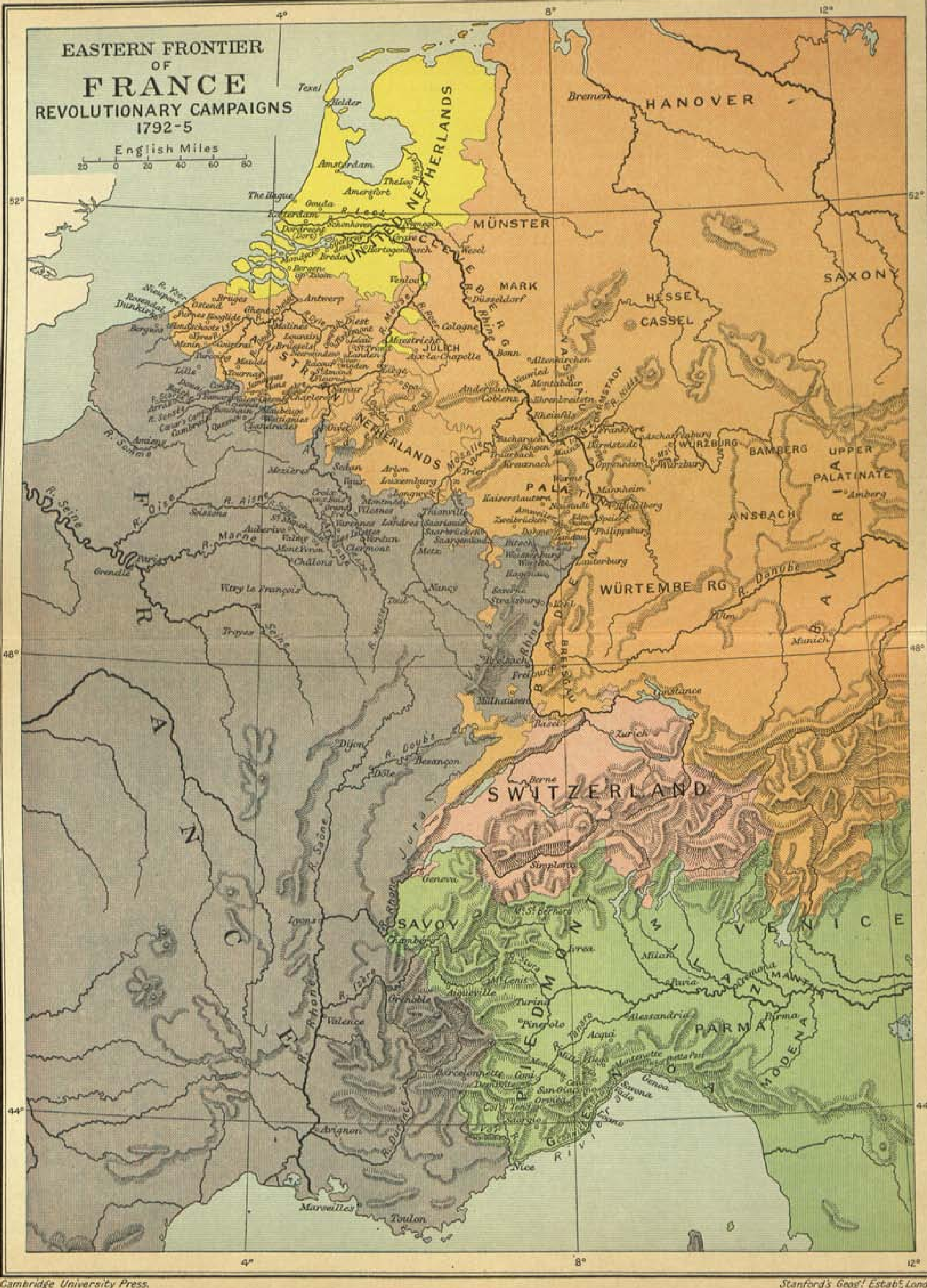


PARIS DURING THE REVOLUTION

Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geogl. Estabt. London.

MAP 81

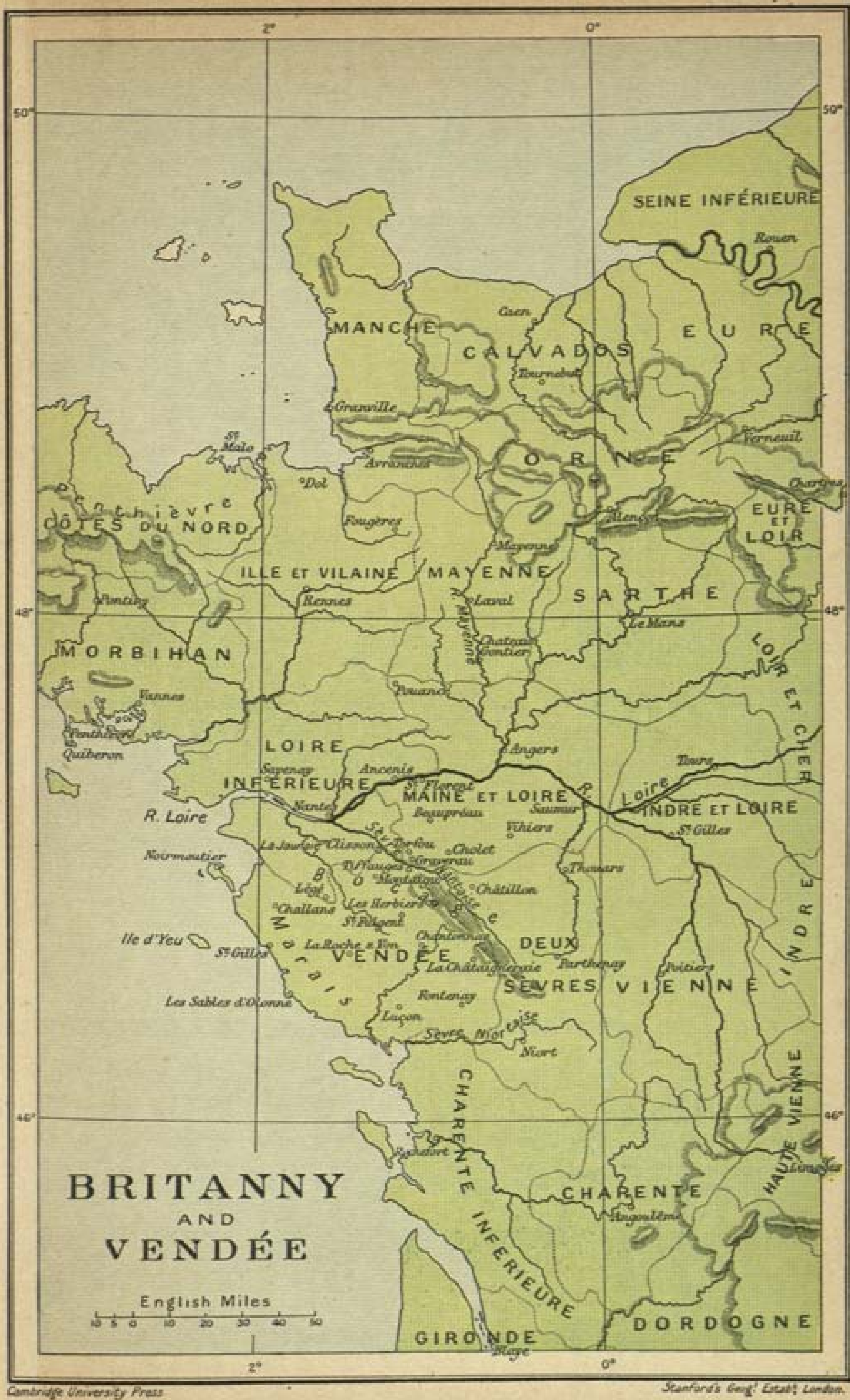
Eastern Frontier
of
France
Revolutionary Campaigns
1792-5



Map 81

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.



Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geogl. Estabt. London.

MAP 83

Northern Italy

Bonaparte's Campaign

1796–7



NORTHERN ITALY

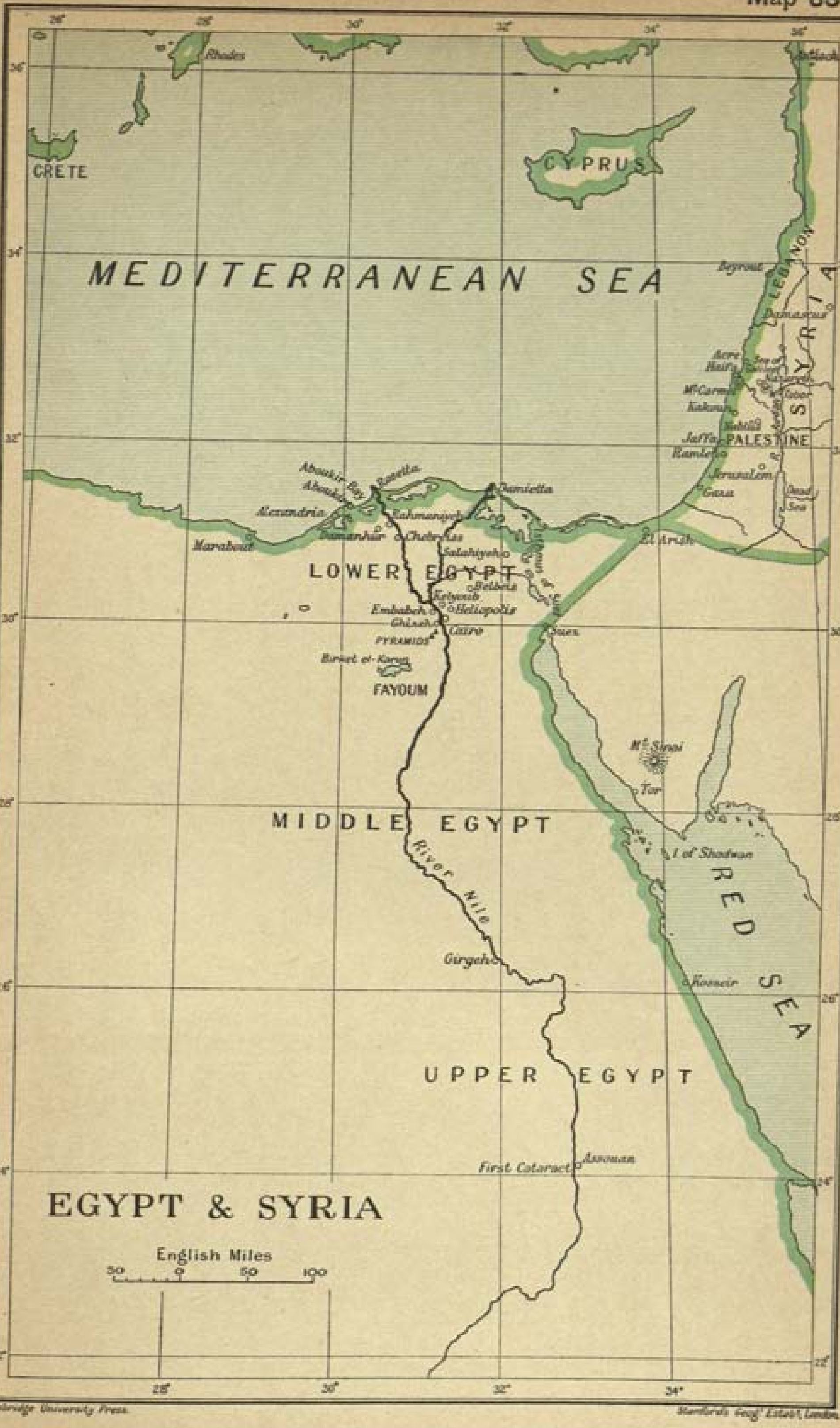
1796-7.



CENTRAL EUROPE after the PEACE OF BASEL AND OF CAMPO FORMIO

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.



ITALY IN 1799

The War with Naples 1798-9

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London

MAP 87

European Waters

Naval Wars 1792–1815

with inset

part of

the French & Flemish coast



Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London

MAP 88

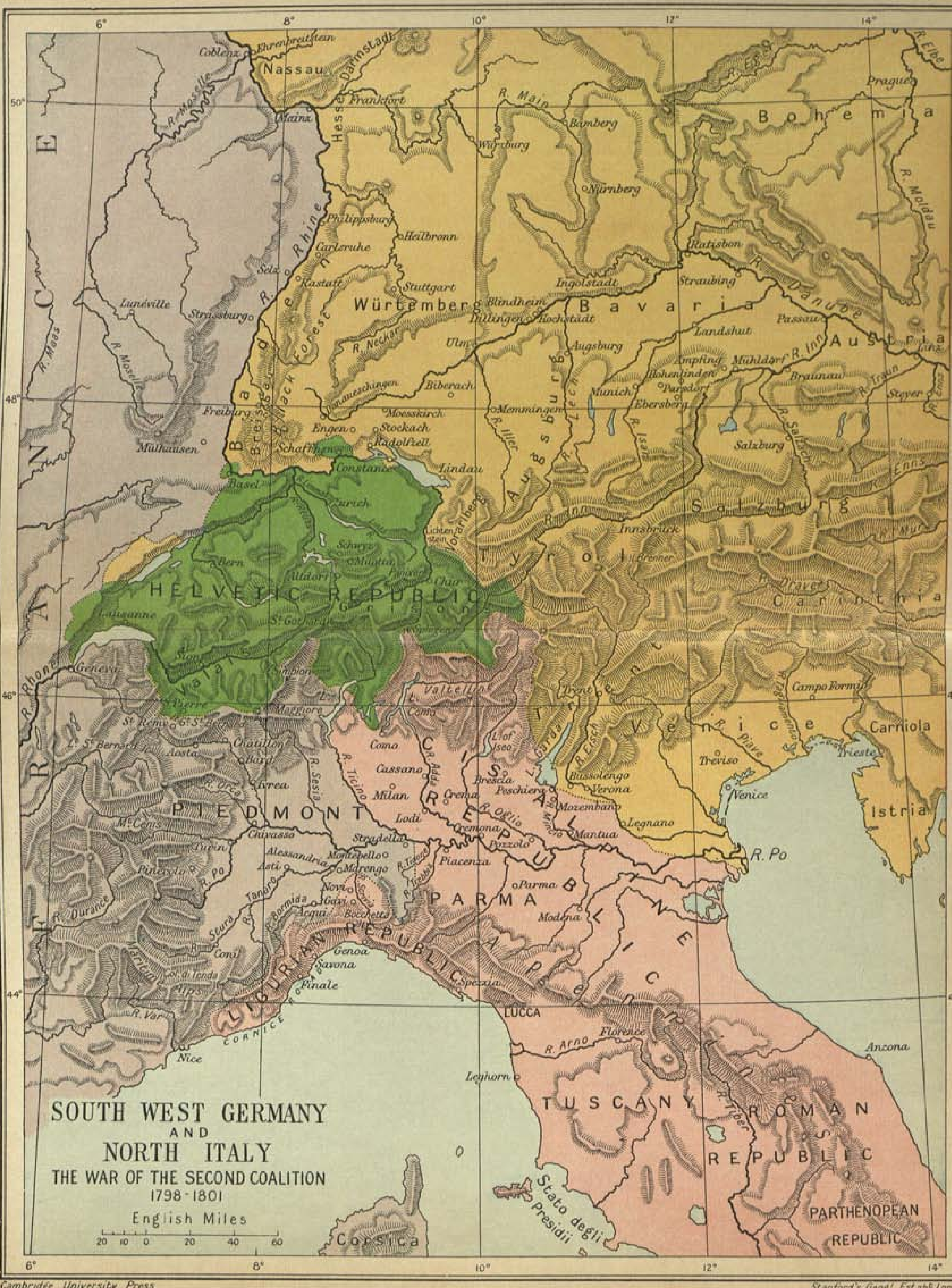
South West Germany

and

North Italy

The War of the Second Coalition

1798–1801



SOUTH WEST GERMANY
AND
NORTH ITALY
THE WAR OF THE SECOND COALITION
1798-1801

Map 88

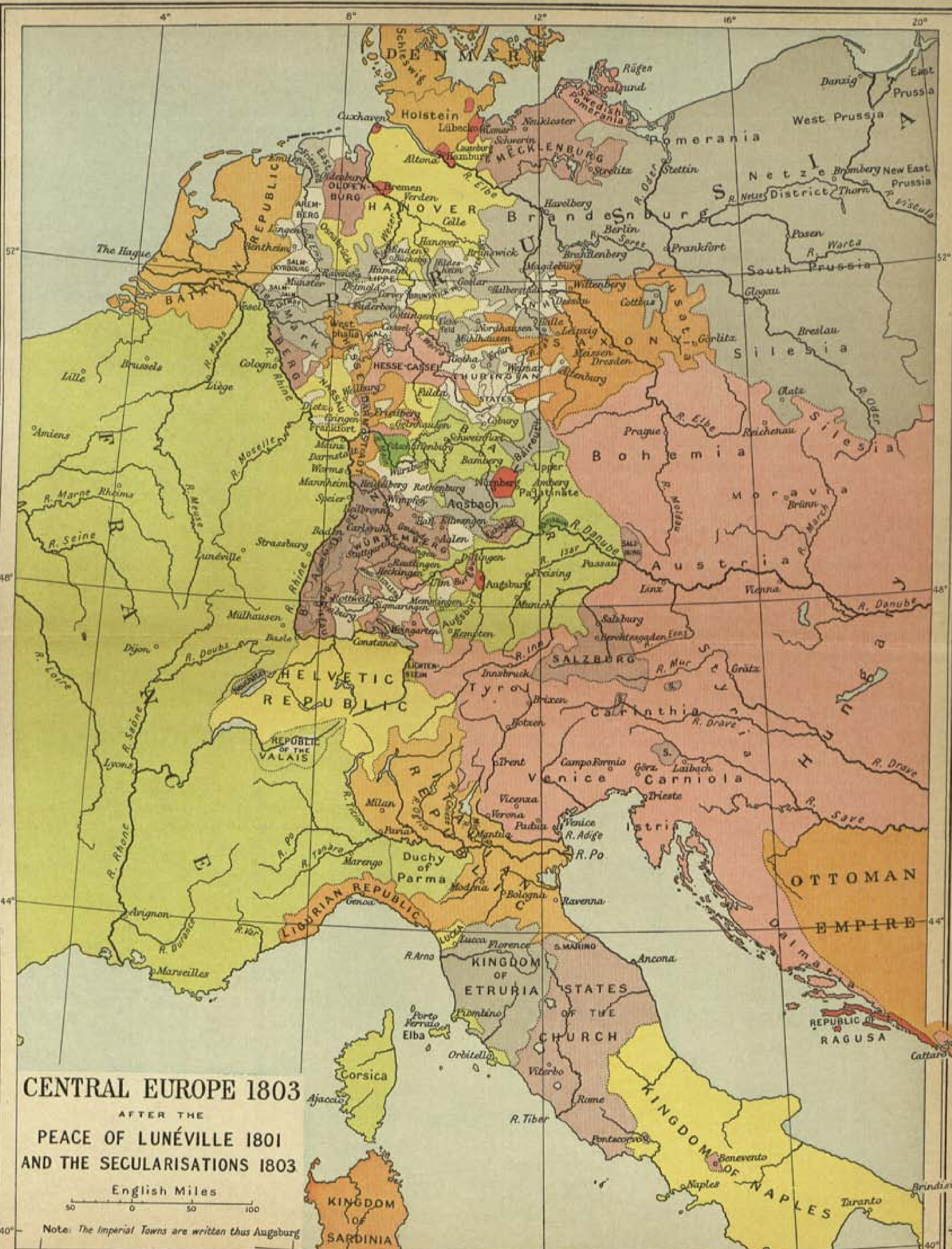
Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 89

Central Europe 1803

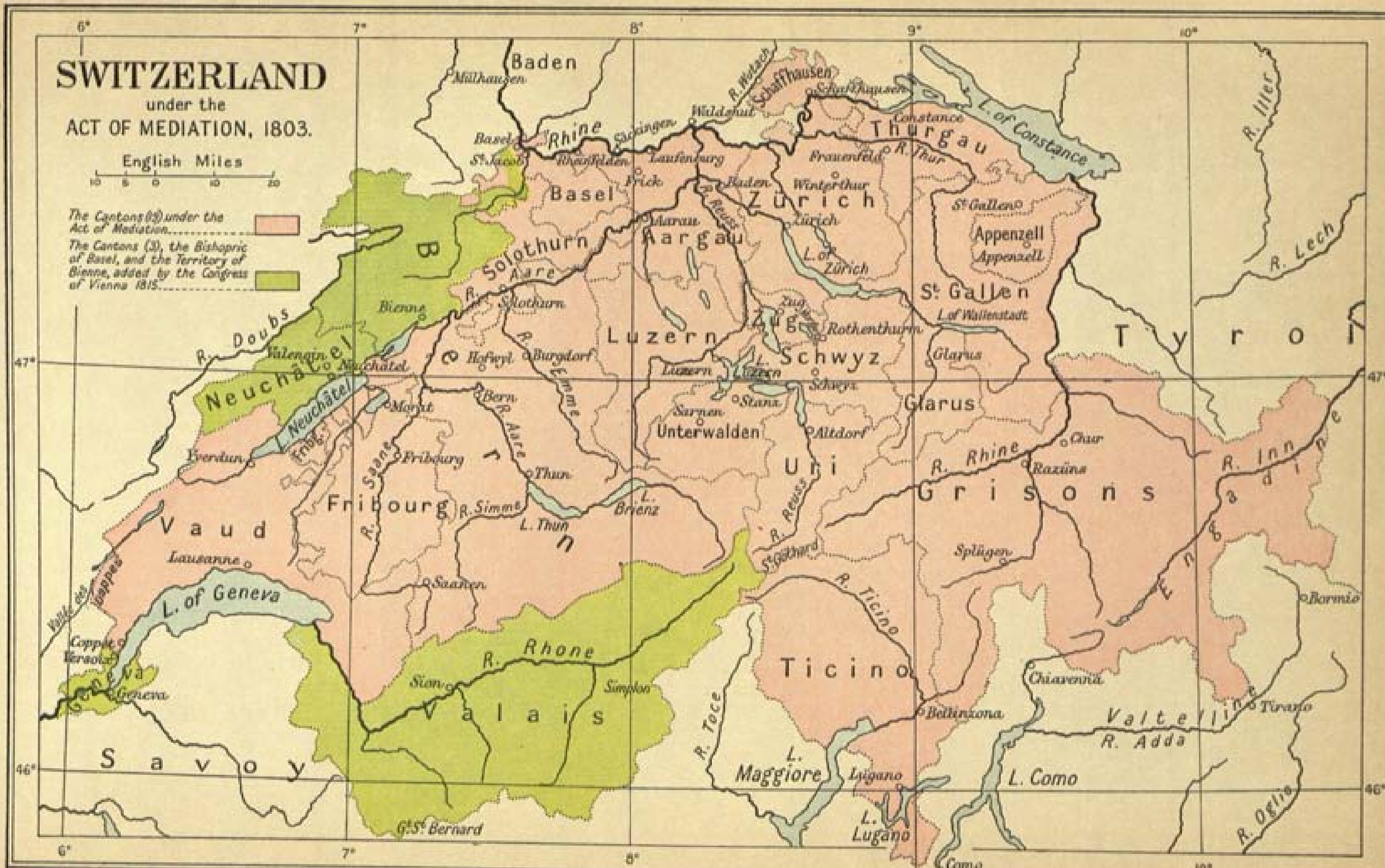
after the
Peace of Lunéville 1801
and the Secularisations 1803



Map 89

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 91

North Atlantic

Naval War

1803–5



Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 92

Central Europe

Wars of the

Third Coalition 1805-7

with inset

The Neighbourhood of Austerlitz



Map 92

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 93

Central Europe

The Austrian War 1809

with inset

Neighbourhood of Vienna


CENTRAL EUROPE
THE AUSTRIAN WAR 1809.
English Miles
The territory ceded by Austria at the Peace of Schönbrunn is coloured thus.
NEIGHBOURHOOD OF VIENNA
Plateau of Wagram
MARCHFELD
Vienna
Lobau I.
Schönbrunn
Wagram
Aderklau
Breitenlee
Aspern
Essling
Enzersdorf
Wittau
Ebersdorf
Holstein
Mecklenburg
HOLLAND
Oldenburg
HANOVER
Pomerania
Brandenburg
Berlin
Stettin
Danzig
East Prussia
PRUSSIA
RUSSIA
Thorn
R. Vistula
Posen
WARSAW
Warsaw
Praga
Westphalia
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
Magdeburg
Brunswick
Wittenberg
Leipzig
Saxony
Dresden
Altenburg
R. Oder
Breslau
Silesia
Opatoff
Nowe Miasto
R. Pilica
Radom
West Galicia
Lublin
Sandomir
Zamosz
Cracow
East Galicia
Lemberg
Tarnopol
R. Pruth
Bohemia
Prague
R. Elbe
Tachau
Olmütz
Iglau
Brünn
Budweis
Znaym
Cologne
R. Rhine
Nassau
Mainz
Würzburg
Ansbach
Ratisbon
Eckmühl
Abensberg
Ingolstadt
Donauwörth
Würtemberg
Strassburg
Landshut
Augsburg
Munich
Neustadt
Passau
Upper
Lower
Austria
Linz
Vienna
Wagram
Pressburg
Komorn
Raab
Buda
Pest
R. Danube
Braunau
Salzburg
Tyrol
Carinthia
Carniola
Croatia
R. Drave
R. Save
Laibach
Villach
Trieste
Fiume
Istria
Venice
Udine
Sacile
Caldiero
Garda
Milan
Mantua
Turin
SWISS CONFEDERATION
KINGDOM OF ITALY
FRANCE
Dalmatia

MAP 94

French Empire

and

Central Europe 1811

Political Divisions



FRENCH EMPIRE AND CENTRAL EUROPE 1811.
POLITICAL DIVISIONS
English Miles
50 0 50 100 150
France in 1789 coloured thus
Acquisitions of France 1789-1811
French Empire and dependent States are coloured in full. Other states have bands of colour.
GREAT BRITAIN
KINGDOM OF DENMARK
SWEDEN
KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA
G. D. OF WARSAW
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
Kingdom of Westphalia
Kingdom of Saxony
Kingdom of Bavaria
Kingdom of Wurtemberg
SWISS CONFEDERATION
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
Bohemia
Moravia
Galicia
Hungary
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Bosnia
KINGDOM OF ITALY
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
KINGDOM OF SPAIN
Catalonia
Corsica
Gulf of Lyons

MAP 95

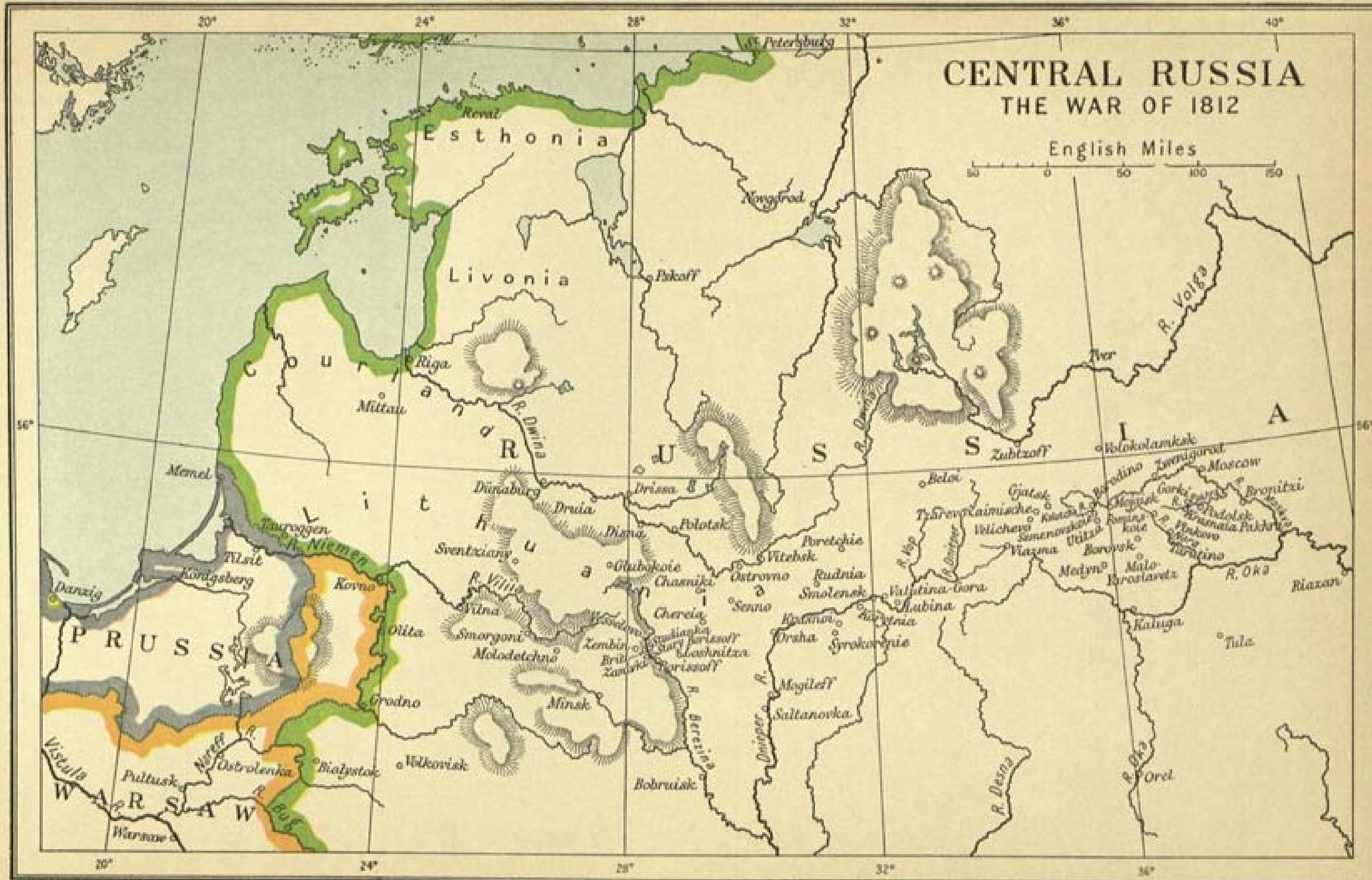
Spain & Portugal
The Peninsular War

and other wars
of the XVIIIth & XIXth centuries



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.



Map 96

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geogl Estabt London.

MAP 97

Germany & Eastern France

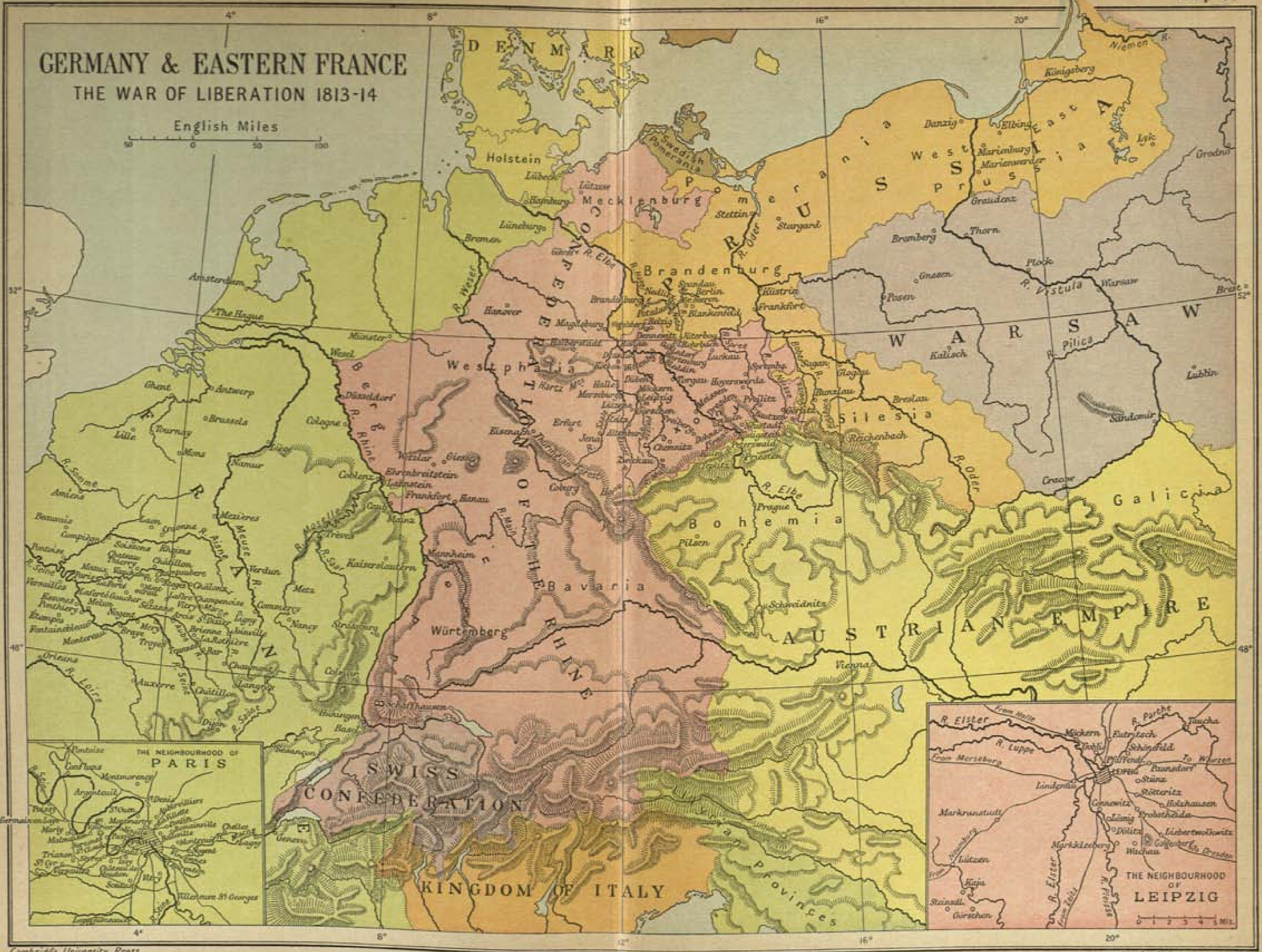
The War of Liberation 1813-14

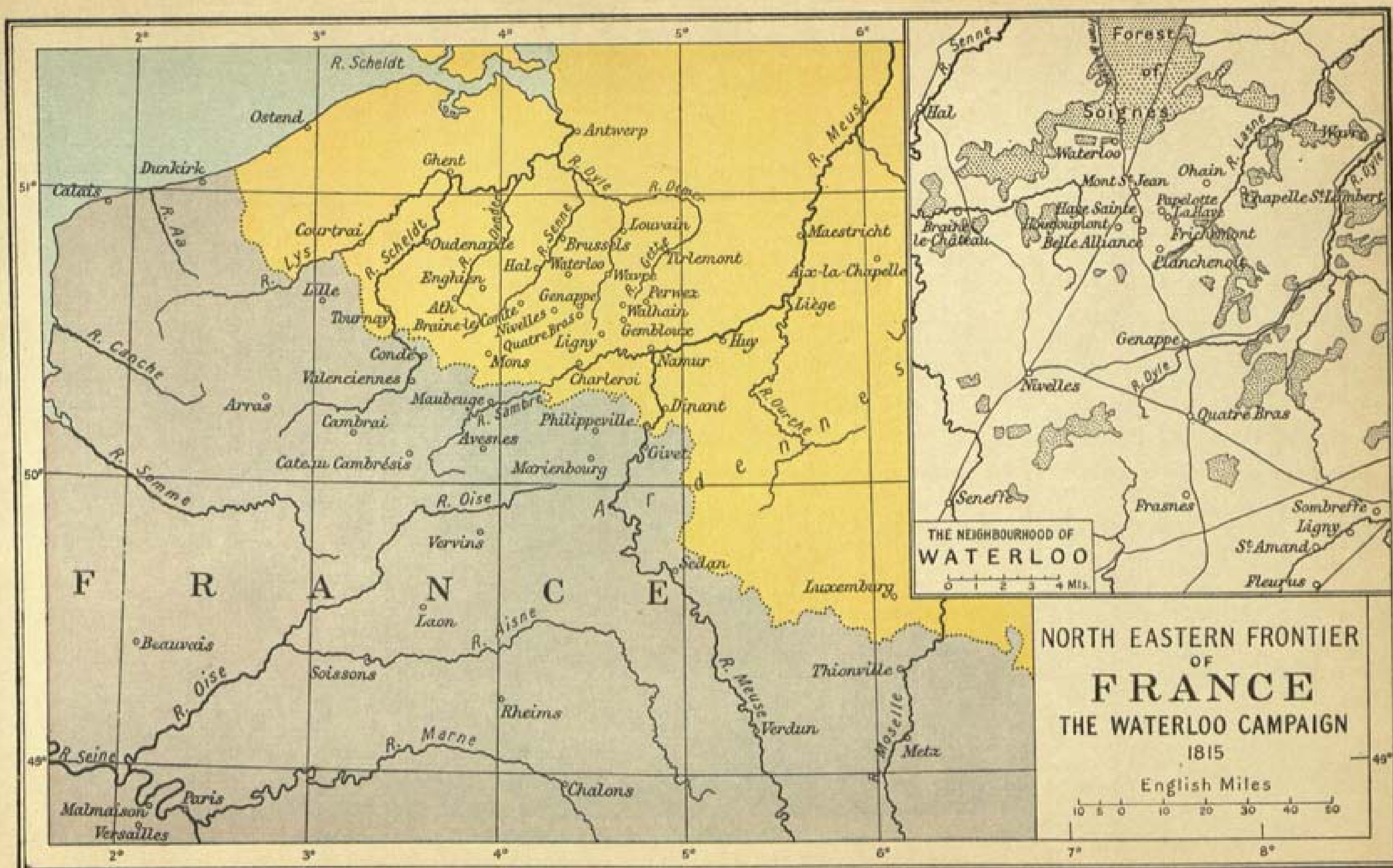
with insets

The Neighbourhood of Paris

and

The Neighbourhood of Leipzig


GERMANY & EASTERN FRANCE
THE WAR OF LIBERATION 1813-14
English Miles
50 0 50 100
DENMARK
Holstein
Lübeck
Hamburg
Mecklenburg
Swedish Pomerania
Pomerania
Lützow
Lüneburg
Bremen
R. Weser
R. Elbe
Stettin
R. Oder
Stargard
Danzig
Elbing
Königsberg
Niemen R.
Marienburg
Marienwerder
West Prussia
East Prussia
Lyk
Grodno
Graudenz
Thorn
Bromberg
Plock
R. Vistula
Warsaw
Brest
Gnesen
Posen
Küstrin
Frankfort
Brandenburg
Spandau
Berlin
Potsdam
Magdeburg
Hanover
Amsterdam
The Hague
Münster
Wesel
Westphalia
Halberstadt
Dennewitz
Jüterbog
Luckau
Torgau
Hoyerswerda
Sagan
Glogau
Kalisch
WARSAW
Pilica
Lublin
Ghent
Antwerp
Brussels
Tournay
Lille
Mons
Namur
Liège
Cologne
Düsseldorf
Berg
R. Rhine
Halle
Merseburg
Leipzig
Lützen
Dresden
Bautzen
Görlitz
Bunzlau
Breslau
Silesia
Reichenbach
Sandomir
Erfurt
Jena
Eisenach
Altenburg
Chemnitz
Zwickau
Kulm
Wetzlar
Giessen
Coblenz
Ehrenbreitstein
Lahnstein
Frankfort
Hanau
Coburg
Hof
R. Elbe
Prague
Bohemia
Pilsen
R. Oder
Cracow
Galicia
Amiens
R. Somme
Beauvais
Laon
Craonne
Soissons
Rheims
Mézières
Meuse
R. Aisne
Château Thierry
Châtillon
Verdun
R. Moselle
Trèves
Mainz
Kaiserslautern
Mannheim
R. Main
Bavaria
Pontoise
R. Seine
Versailles
Paris
Meaux
Châlons
Metz
Nancy
Commercy
Strasbourg
Montereau
Fontainebleau
Nogent
Troyes
Brienne
La Rothière
Bar
Chaumont
Langres
Würtemberg
Schweidnitz
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
Vienna
Orleans
R. Loire
Auxerre
Châtillon
Dijon
R. Saône
Colmar
Schaffhausen
Huningen
Basel
Besançon
Geneva
SWISS CONFEDERATION
KINGDOM OF ITALY
Illyrian Provinces
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
FRANCE
PRUSSIA
THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF PARIS
Pontoise
Conflans
Montmorency
Argenteuil
St Denis
St Germain en Laye
Marly
Trianon
St Cyr
Versailles
Sceaux
Villeneuve St Georges
Chelles
THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF LEIPZIG
R. Elster
From Halle
R. Parthe
Taucha
Möckern
Eutritzsch
Schönefeld
R. Luppe
From Merseburg
To Wurzen
Lindenau
Leipzig
Stötteritz
Holzhausen
Probstheida
Markranstädt
Connewitz
Dölitz
Markkleeberg
Liebertwolkwitz
Wachau
Lützen
Kaja
R. Pleisse
Görschen
0 1 2 3 4 5 Mls.



Map 98

Cambridge University Press

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 99

India in 1804

The Mysore & Maratha Wars

1792-1804



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.

Map 99

MAP 100

The Eastern World

European Colonies and Dependencies

1815



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 101

The Western World

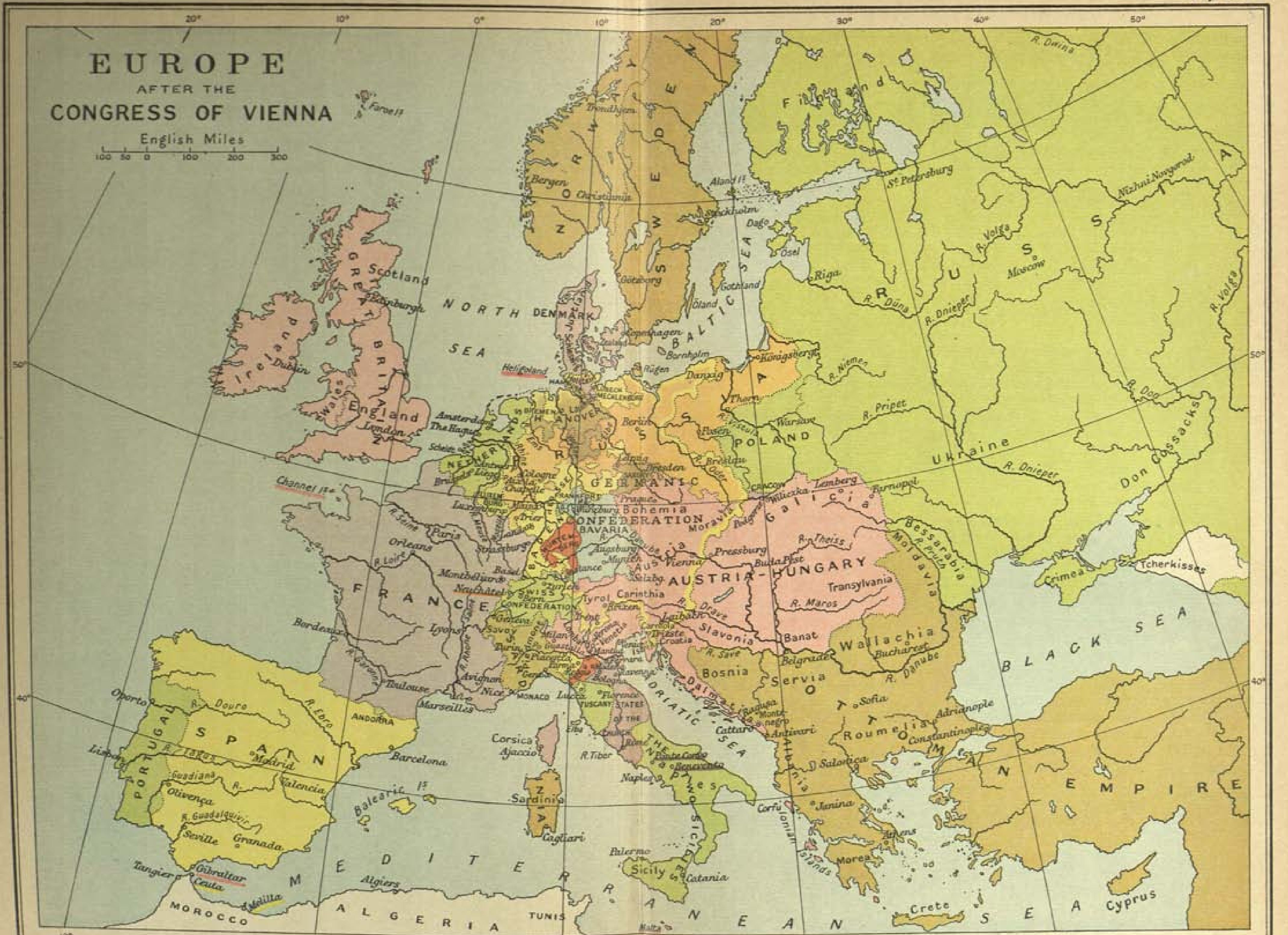
European Colonies and Dependencies 1815


THE WESTERN WORLD
EUROPEAN COLONIES
AND
DEPENDENCIES
1815
British
French
Spanish
Portuguese
Dutch
Danish
Russian
Greenland
Iceland
Arctic Circle
Great Bear Lake
Great Slave Lake
Hudson Strait
Hudson Bay
Labrador
BRITISH ISLES
Newfoundland
Nova Scotia
Sitka
Vancouver I.
R. Columbia
Louisiana
UNITED STATES
New Spain
R. San Francisco
Monterey
Santa Fé
St. Louis
Cincinnati
Pittsburg
Buffalo
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Washington
Richmond
Charleston
New Orleans
Mobile
Bermudas
Azores
Madeira
Canary Is.
Lisbon
SPAIN
Gibraltar
Tangier
Fez
MOROCCO
Mogador
Tropic of Cancer
Havana
Mexico
Vera Cruz
Acapulco
CARIBBEAN SEA
Cartagena
Leeward Is.
Windward Is.
C. Verd Is.
Sierra Leone
Freetown
GUINEA
C.C. Castle
Equator
New Granada
Bogota
Quito
Cayenne
R. Amazon
Ceara
Pernambuco
Bahia
Brazil
Lima
Peru
Marquesas
Ascension
St. Helena
Tropic of Capricorn
San Paulo
Rio de Janeiro
La Plata
Valparaiso
Santiago
Juan Fernandez
Montevideo
Buenos Ayres
R. La Plata
Tristan da Cunha
Chile
Colorado R.
PATAGONIA
Pt. Egmont
Falkland Is.
Strs. of Magellan
South Georgia
120°
90°
60°
30°
0°

Map 101

MAP 102

Europe
after the
Congress of Vienna

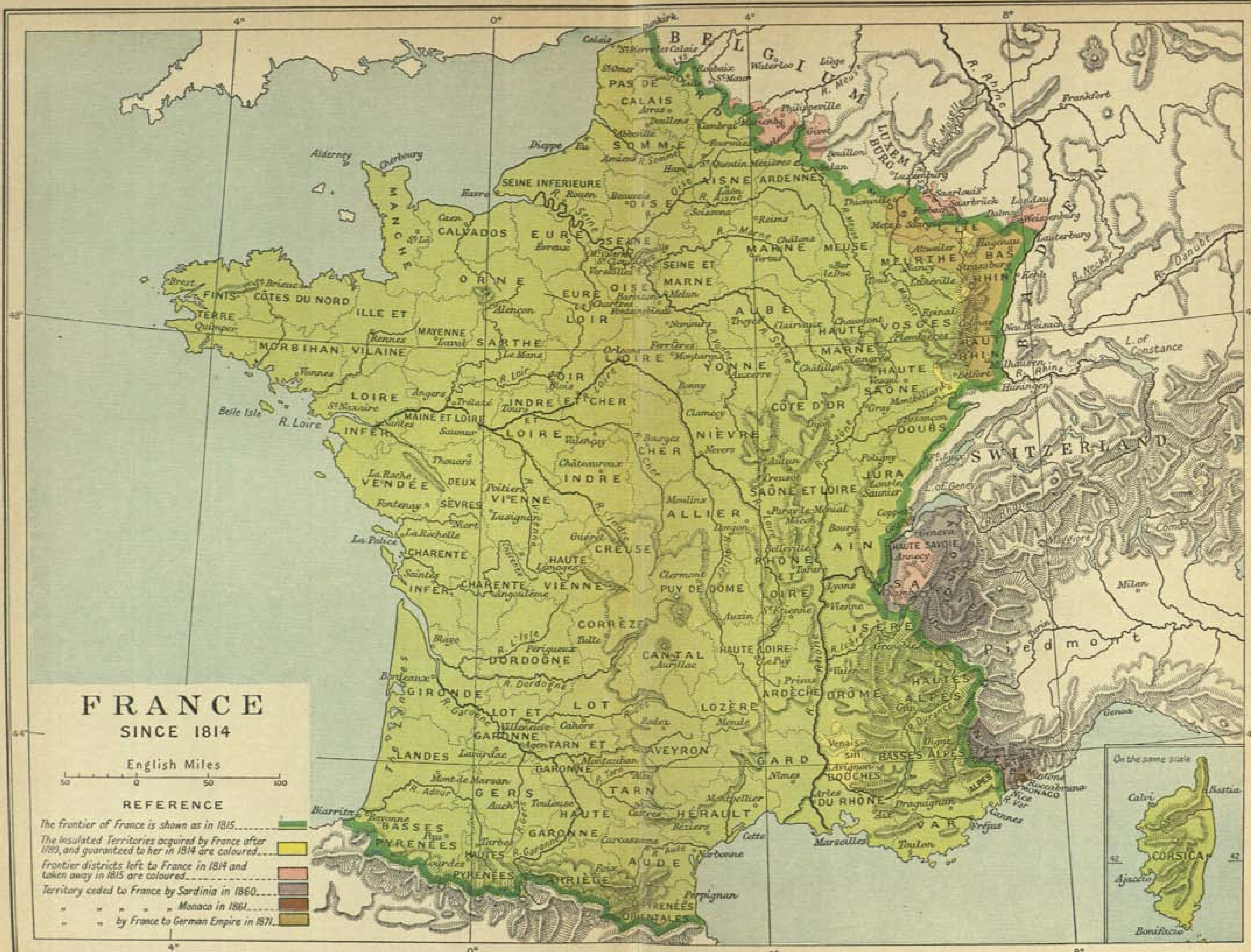


EUROPE
AFTER THE
CONGRESS OF VIENNA
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200 300
Faroe I.s
NORTH SEA
Scotland
Edinburgh
GREAT BRITAIN
Ireland
Dublin
Wales
England
London
Heligoland
Channel I.s
NORWAY
Trondhjem
Bergen
Christiania
SWEDEN
Stockholm
Göteborg
Gothland
Öland
Aland I.s
DENMARK
Kopenhagen
Bornholm
BALTIC SEA
Dago
Osel
Finland
St. Petersburg
Riga
R. Düna
R. Dnieper
R. Niemen
R. Pripet
R. Volga
R. Dwina
Moscow
Nizhni Novgorod
RUSSIA
R. Don
Ukraine
Don Cossacks
Königsberg
Danzig
Thorn
Posen
Warsaw
POLAND
PRUSSIA
Berlin
Rügen
MECKLENBURG
HANOVER
BREMEN
Amsterdam
The Hague
Scheldt
NETHERLANDS
Liege
Brussels
Cologne
Aix-la-Chapelle
Luxemburg
Trier
Mainz
FRANKFORT
Leipzig
Dresden
R. Breslau
Oder
GERMANIC
CONFEDERATION
CRACOW
Wieliczka
Lemberg
Tarnopol
Galicia
Bohemia
Prague
Moravia
BAVARIA
Augsburg
Munich
WÜRTEMBERG
BADEN
Strassburg
Paris
R. Seine
Orleans
R. Loire
FRANCE
Bordeaux
R. Garonne
Toulouse
Lyons
R. Rhone
Avignon
Marseilles
Nice
MONACO
Montbéliard
Basel
Neuchâtel
Zurich
Bern
SWISS
CONFEDERATION
Geneva
Savoy
Turin
Milan
Genoa
Austria
Vienna
Salzburg
Pressburg
Buda Pest
R. Theiss
AUSTRIA-HUNGARY
Transylvania
R. Maros
Tyrol
Carinthia
R. Drave
Laibach
Trieste
Croatia
Slavonia
Banat
R. Save
Venetia
Parma
Modena
Lucca
Florence
TUSCANY
STATES OF THE CHURCH
Rome
R. Tiber
Bessarabia
R. Pruth
Moldavia
Wallachia
Bucharest
R. Danube
Crimea
Tcherkisses
BLACK SEA
Bosnia
Belgrade
Servia
Sofia
Adrianople
Roumelia
Constantinople
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Dalmatia
Ragusa
Montenegro
Cattaro
Antivari
Albania
Salonica
Janina
Corfu
Ionian Islands
Athens
Morea
Crete
Cyprus
ADRIATIC SEA
Naples
Ponte Corvo
Benevento
THE TWO SICILIES
Sicily
Palermo
Catania
Malta
Corsica
Ajaccio
Elba
Sardinia
Cagliari
Balearic I.s
PORTUGAL
Oporto
Lisbon
R. Douro
R. Tagus
Guadiana
Olivença
SPAIN
Madrid
Valencia
Barcelona
ANDORRA
R. Ebro
R. Guadalquivir
Seville
Granada
Gibraltar
Tangier
Ceuta
Melilla
MOROCCO
ALGERIA
Algiers
TUNIS
MEDITERRANEAN SEA

MAP 103

France

since 1814



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 104

Italy

since 1815

The Struggle for Unity

with inset

Stages in the Union of Italy

1859–70


ITALY
SINCE 1815
THE STRUGGLE FOR UNITY
English Miles
50
0
50
100
STAGES IN THE
UNION OF ITALY
1859-70.
Lombardy
1859
Venetia
1866
Piedmont
PARMA
MODENA
Romagna
1860
TUSCANY
1860
Marches
Umbria
Patrimony of St. Peter
1870
Rome
THE TWO SICILIES
1860
Sardinia
SWITZERLAND
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Tyrol
Carinthia
Carniola
Croatia
Istria
Lombardy
Venetia
Friuli
PARMA
MODENA
Emilia
Romagna
TUSCANY
STATES OF THE CHURCH
Umbria
Abruzzi
Molise
Capitanata
Apulia
Basilicata
THE TWO SICILIES
ADRIATIC SEA
Corsica
Sardinia
Straits of Bonifacio
Elba
Malta
Dalmatia
Ragusa
Monte-negro
Milan
Venice
Turin
Genoa
Florence
Leghorn
Rome
Naples
Palermo
Messina
Bari
Ancona
Bologna
Ravenna
Rimini
Trieste
Fiume
Nice
Monaco
Cagliari
Sassari
Caprera
Catania
Girgenti
Marsala
Trapani
Reggio
Taranto
Brindisi
Lecce
Gallipoli
Otranto
Cotrone
C. Passaro
Terranova
Agosta
Taormina
Milazzo
R. Po
R. Adige
R. Piave
R. Tiber
R. Arno
R. Pescara
R. Volturno
R. Drave
R. Save
8°
12°
16°
44°
40°
36°

Map 104

MAP 105

Ottoman Empire in Europe

1792–1870



Map 105

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 106

Spanish & Portuguese
Settlements in America

with inset

Latin America
after the
Wars of Independence 1825



Map 106

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 107

The Germanic Confederation

1815



Map 107

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London

MAP 108

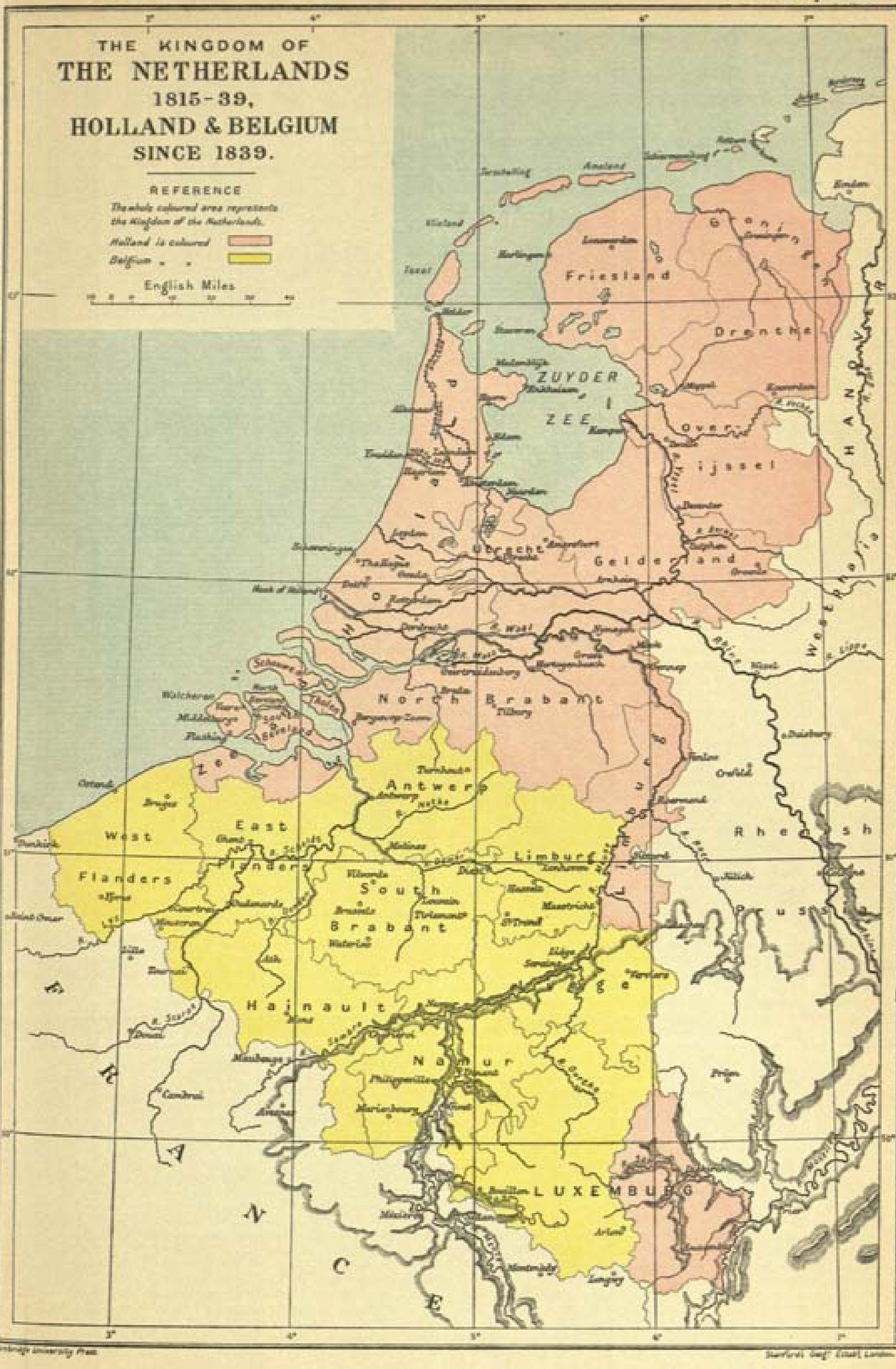
Russia in Europe

in the nineteenth century

with inset

The Neighbourhood of Warsaw


RUSSIA IN EUROPE
IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY
REFERENCE
Russia at the accession of Alexander I. 1801
Acquisitions of Alexander I. 1801-1825
" " Nicholas I. 1825-1855
" " Alexander II. 1855-1881
In 1815, Russia surrendered Tarnopol to Austria: in 1856, the part of Bessarabia south of the green boundary line, to Roumania, and the Danube Delta to Turkey. In 1878 Russia recovered the part of Bessarabia ceded to Roumania in 1856. Territory that was permanently restored is shown by a margin of colour.
THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF WARSAW
Pultusk
Sierock
Narew
R. Bug
Modlin
Radzymin
R. Vistula
Dobre
Bielany
Warsaw
Praga
Okonieff
Vola
Grochoff
Mokotoff
Dembe Welkie
Blonie
Olszynka
Grodzisk
Karczeff
English Miles
Finmark
Varanger Fiord
West Fiord
Norrland
SWEDEN
Gulf of Bothnia
BALTIC SEA
FINLAND
Kola
White Sea
Samoyedes
Archangel
Olonets
Vologda
Esthonia
St Petersburg
Novgorod
Livonia
Courland
Kovno
Pskoff
Tver
Jaroslavl
Kostroma
Viatka
Perm
Vitebsk
Vilna
Moscow
Vladimir
Nizhni Novgorod
Kazan
Ufa
Orenburg
Smolensk
Kaluga
Tula
Riazan
Simbirsk
Mohileff
Minsk
Grodno
Penza
Samara
East Prussia
West Prussia
POLAND
Orel
Tamboff
Saratoff
Chernigoff
Kursk
Voronezh
Volynia
Galicia
Kieff
Poltava
Kharkoff
Podolia
Bessarabia
Moldavia
UKRAINE
DON COSSACKS
Kherson
Ekaterinoslaff
Astrakhan
Taurida
Sea of Azoff
Wallachia
Bucharest
R. Danube
Bulgaria
Varna
Adrianople
Constantinople
Bosporus
Dardanelles
BLACK SEA
Kuban
Stavropol
Circassia
Sevastopol
Simferopol
CASPIAN SEA
Derbent
Baku
Tiflis
Erzerum
Armenia
Tabriz
Astrabad
Mazanderan
Ural Mountains
SIBERIA
Russia
Austria
Turkey
Persia
R. Volga
R. Ural
R. Dvina
R. Ob
Map 108
Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geog. Estabt, London



Cambridge University Press
Stanford's Geog' Estab', London

MAP 111

The Austrian Dominions

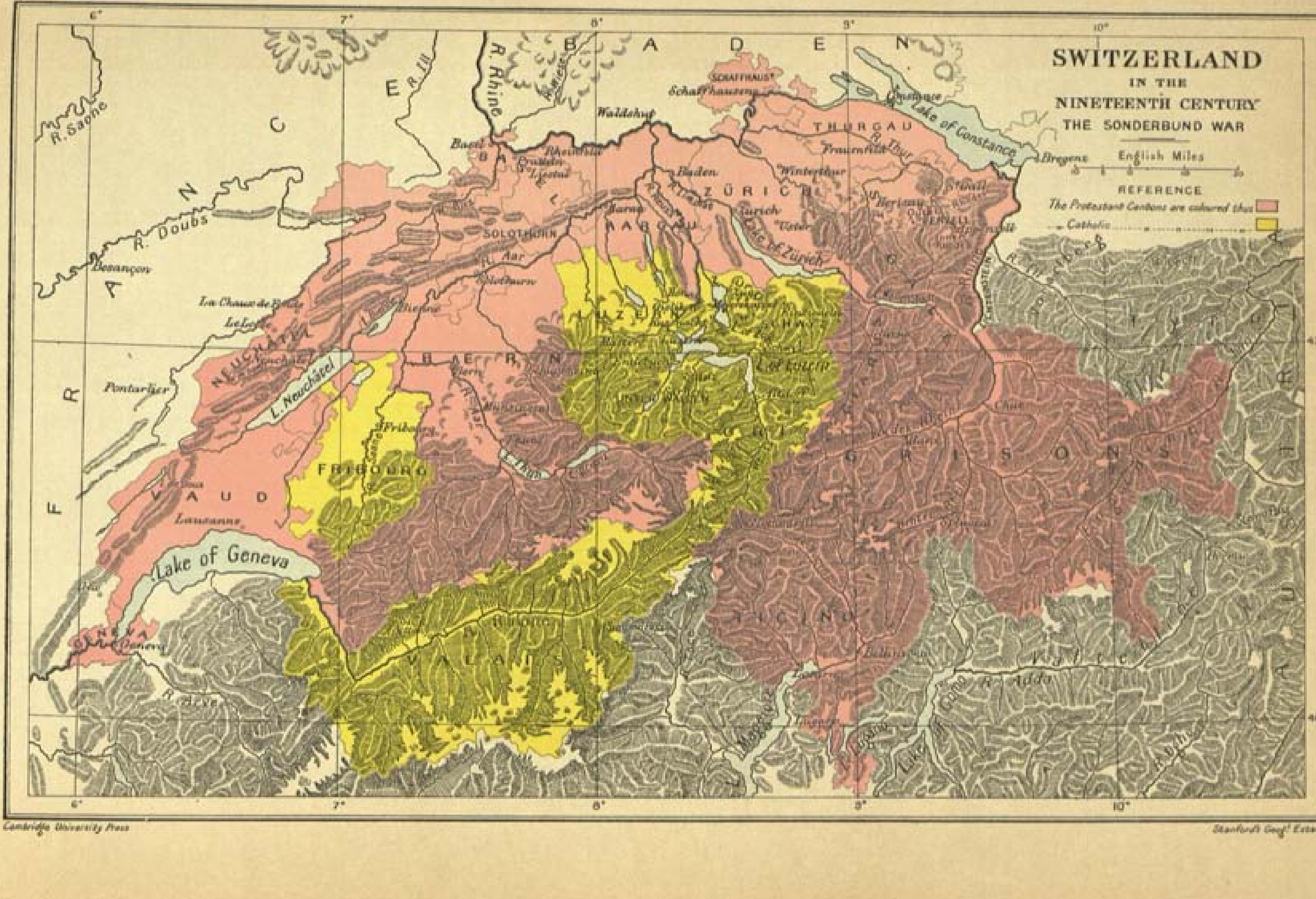
since 1815



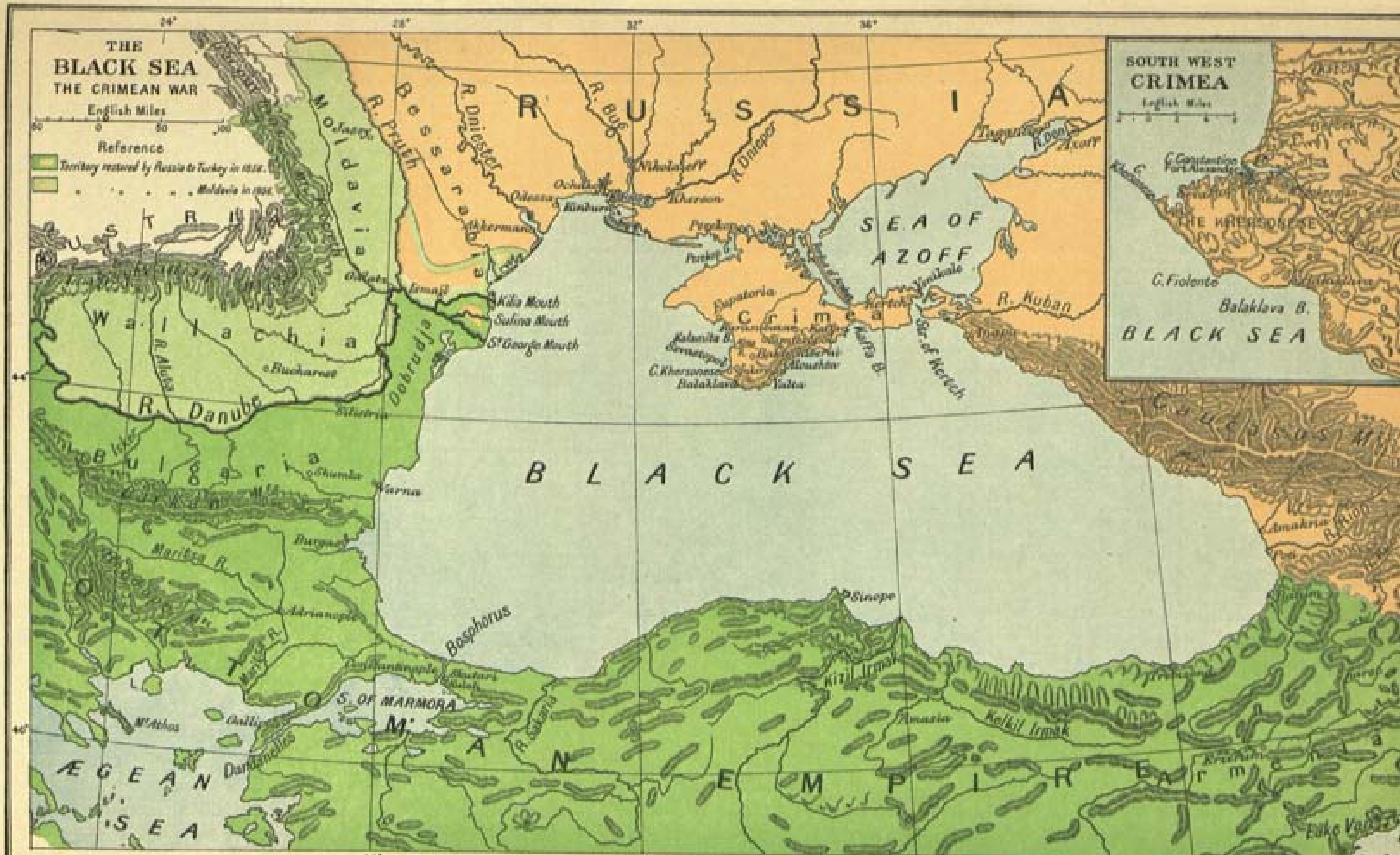
THE
AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS
SINCE 1815.

Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!


SWITZERLAND
IN THE
NINETEENTH CENTURY
THE SONDERBUND WAR
English Miles
REFERENCE
The Protestant Cantons are coloured thus
Catholic
B A D E N
F R A N C E
SCHAFFHAUSEN
Schaffhausen
THURGAU
Lake of Constance
Bregenz
Waldshut
R. Rhine
Basel
ZÜRICH
Zurich
Lake of Zürich
Winterthur
Frauenfeld
Baden
SOLOTHURN
Solothurn
R. Aar
R. Doubs
Besançon
R. Saône
La Chaux de Fonds
Le Locle
NEUCHATEL
L. Neuchâtel
Pontarlier
B E R N
FRIBOURG
Fribourg
V A U D
Lausanne
Lake of Geneva
GENEVA
Geneva
R. Arve
VALAIS
LUZERN
Lof Luzern
TICINO
Bellinzona
G R I S O N S
Chur
R. Adda
6°
7°
8°
9°
10°
46°
47°
Cambridge University Press
Stanford's Geogl. Estabt.


ENGLAND & WALES
PARLIAMENTARY REPRESENTATION
IN 1832 AFTER
THE REFORM BILL.
English Miles
REFERENCE
Counties (including one division of a county the I. of Wight) returning 1 member each coloured
Counties returning 2 members each
" " 3 " "
Counties subdivided into 2 constituencies and returning 4 members each
County of Yorkshire subdivided into 3 constituencies and returning 6 members
Boroughs returning 1 member each shown thus Morpeth
" " 2 members " Durham
The city of London returned 4 members and the Universities of Oxford & Cambridge 2 members each.
In Wales the boroughs marked, with the exception of Brecon and Merthyr Tydfil, returned their 1 member in conjunction with other smaller boroughs of the same county.
The boroughs of New Shoreham, East Retford, Cricklade, and Aylesbury included the surrounding districts which are shown thus
SCOTLAND
Berwick-on-Tweed
NORTHUMBERLAND
Morpeth
Tynemouth
Newcastle
South Shields
Gateshead
Sunderland
Durham
CUMBERLAND
Cockermouth
Whitehaven
DURHAM
WESTMORLAND
Richmond
Whitby
North Allerton
Scarborough
Thirsk
Ripon
Malton
YORK
Lancaster
York
Beverley
Bradford
Leeds
Kingston on Hull
Preston
Pontefract
Liverpool
Great Grimsby
Sheffield
ANGLESEY
Beaumaris
Carnarvon
FLINT
DENBIGH
CHESHIRE
Chester
Stockport
Lincoln
LINCOLN
CARNARVON
MERIONETH
Newark
Boston
Stafford
STAFFORD
Grantham
Shrewsbury
SALOP
LEICESTER
Kings Lynn
NORFOLK
Norwich
MONTGOMERY
Montgomery
Bridgnorth
Ludlow
HUNTS
Thetford
Eye
CARDIGAN
RADNOR
WARWICK
Warwick
NORTHAMPTON
SUFFOLK
Cardigan
HEREFORD
Hereford
BEDFORD
CAMBRIDGE
Cambridge
Ipswich
Harwich
PEMBROKE
Haverfordwest
CARMARTHEN
Carmarthen
BRECKNOCK
GLOUCESTER
Gloucester
Pembroke
GLAMORGAN
Swansea
MONMOUTH
Stroud
ESSEX
Cardiff
Bristol
Chippenham
Bath
WILTS
Devizes
Frome
Andover
SURREY
KENT
Sandwich
Barnstaple
Bridgwater
Wells
Guildford
Reigate
Dover
SOMERSET
Wilton
HANTS
Winchester
Hythe
Tiverton
Taunton
Honiton
Chichester
SUSSEX
Rye
DEVON
Exeter
DORSET
Bridport
Dorchester
Lewes
Hastings
Launceston
Tavistock
Newport
I. OF WIGHT
Portsmouth
Brighton
New Shoreham
Ashburton
Bodmin
Totnes
Weymouth
CORNWALL
Dartmouth
Penryn & Falmouth
St Ives
Truro
6°
4°
2°
0°
56°
54°
52°
50°



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog^l Estab^t



Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geog. Estab.

MAP 117

Central Europe

The War of 1866

with inset

N.E. Bohemia



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!

Map 117

MAP 118

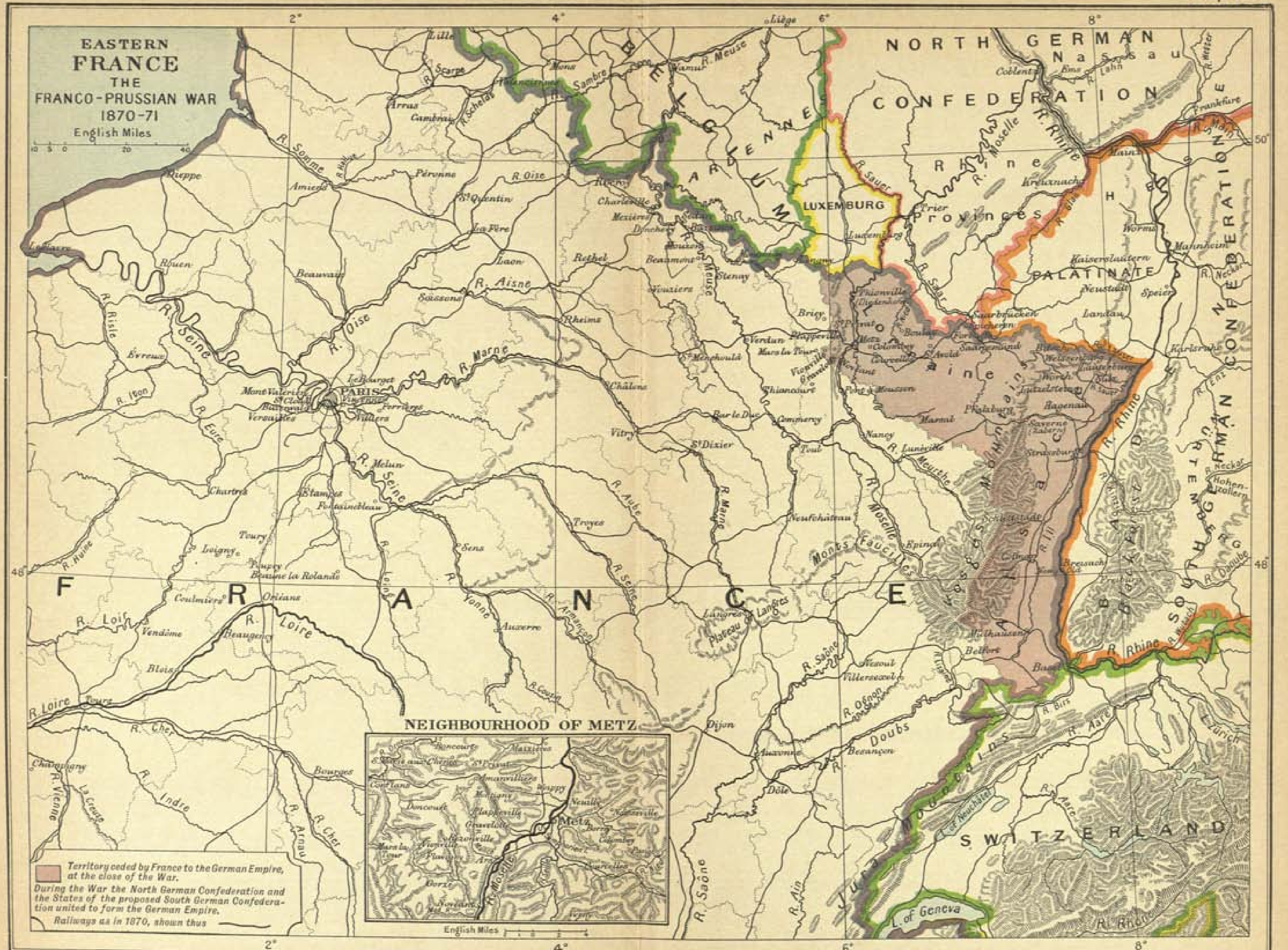
Eastern France

The Franco-Prussian War

1870–71

with inset

Neighbourhood of Metz


EASTERN
FRANCE
THE
FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR
1870-71
English Miles
NORTH GERMAN
CONFEDERATION
Nassau
Rhine Provinces
LUXEMBURG
BELGIUM
ARDENNES
PALATINATE
HESSE
SOUTH GERMAN CONFEDERATION
WÜRTEMBERG
BADEN
Black Forest
SWITZERLAND
Jura Mountains
Vosges Mountains
Monts Faucilles
Plateau of Langres
Lorraine
Alsace
FRANCE
L. of Geneva
Lille
Arras
Cambrai
Amiens
Péronne
St Quentin
La Fère
Laon
Dieppe
Rouen
Beauvais
Soissons
Rheims
Rethel
Sedan
Mézières
Charleville
Stenay
Verdun
Metz
Thionville
Saarbrücken
Saarlouis
Forbach
Wörth
Weissenburg
Hagenau
Strassburg
Phalsburg
Schlettstadt
Colmar
Mülhausen
Belfort
Basel
Breisach
Nancy
Lunéville
Toul
Pont à Mousson
Commercy
Bar le Duc
St Dizier
Vitry
Châlons
Ste Menehould
Troyes
Sens
Auxerre
Langres
Dijon
Dôle
Besançon
Vesoul
Villersexel
Épinal
Neufchâteau
Paris
Versailles
Chartres
Étampes
Fontainebleau
Toury
Loigny
Coulmiers
Orléans
Beaugency
Vendôme
Blois
Tours
Bourges
Le Havre
Évreux
Liège
Namur
Mons
Valenciennes
Coblentz
Trier
Luxemburg
Kreuznach
Kaiserslautern
Neustadt
Landau
Speier
Mannheim
Worms
Mainz
Frankfurt
Karlsruhe
R. Seine
R. Oise
R. Aisne
R. Marne
R. Somme
R. Meuse
R. Moselle
R. Saar
R. Rhine
R. Loire
R. Yonne
R. Aube
R. Saône
R. Doubs
R. Cher
R. Indre
R. Vienne
R. Aar
R. Rhone
R. Ain
R. Ognon
R. Neckar
R. Danube
NEIGHBOURHOOD OF METZ
Metz
Gravelotte
Mars la Tour
Vionville
Plappeville
Courcelles
English Miles
Territory ceded by France to the German Empire, at the close of the War.
During the War the North German Confederation and the States of the proposed South German Confederation united to form the German Empire.
Railways as in 1870, shown thus

MAP 119

Ottoman Empire
in Europe 1870–8


OTTOMAN EMPIRE
IN EUROPE 1870-8.
English Miles
50 0 50 100
REFERENCE
The colouring shows the political position after the Treaty of Berlin, 1878.
Independent States
Autonomous but dependent States
Territory occupied by Austria
" remaining under direct Turkish rule
" ceded by Roumania to Russia
Frontiers as defined by the Treaty of San Stefano
AUSTRIA - HUNGARY
RUSSIA
ROUMANIA
SERVIA
BULGARIA
EASTERN ROUMELIA
MONTENEGRO
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
GREECE
ITALY
Bosnia
Herzegovina
Dalmatia
Bessarabia
Dobrudja
Macedonia
Thrace
Thessaly
Transylvanian Alps
Balkan Mts
ADRIATIC SEA
BLACK SEA
AEGEAN SEA
SEA OF MARMORA
L. Balaton (Platten See)
R. Drave
R. Save
R. Danube
R. Theiss
R. Maros
R. Temes
R. Sereth
R. Pruth
R. Dniester
R. Drina
R. Bosna
R. Morava
R. Vardar
R. Maritsa
R. Iskar
R. Alluta
R. Jiu
R. Dumbovitsa
R. Yalomitsa
Temesvar
Semlin
Belgrade
Banjaluka
Sarajevo (Bosna Serai)
Mostar
Nevesinje
Bilek
Gacko
Plevlje
Prepolje
Bielopolje
Novi Bazar
Priboj
Parachin
Djunis
Nissa
Pirot
Timok
Zajecar
Widdin
Calafat
Craiova
Bucharest
Braila
Galatz
Jassy
Ismail
Odessa
Constantsa
Silistria
Rustchuk
Nicopolis
Sistova
Plevna
Shumla
Varna
Sofia
Sliven
Stara Zagora
Tatar Pazardzik
Philippopolis
Batak
Adrianople
Constantinople
San Stefano
Skutari
Rodosto
Gallipoli
Dardanelles
Besika B.
Bosporus
Prinkipo
Salonika
Monastir
L. Ochrida
Prespa
Corfu
Saseno Is.
Valona
Janina
Parga
Larissa
Volo
Pelion
Makrinitsa
Domoko
Dulcigno
Antivari
Cettinje
Skutari (Scodra)
Niksich
Danilovgrad
Spizza
R. Bojana
Vranja
Kossovo
Serres
16°
20°
24°
28°
44°
40°

MAP 120

The Balkan Peninsula

1878-1910



Map 120

Cambridge University Press.

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MAP 121

England and Wales

1649–1910



Cambridge University Press.

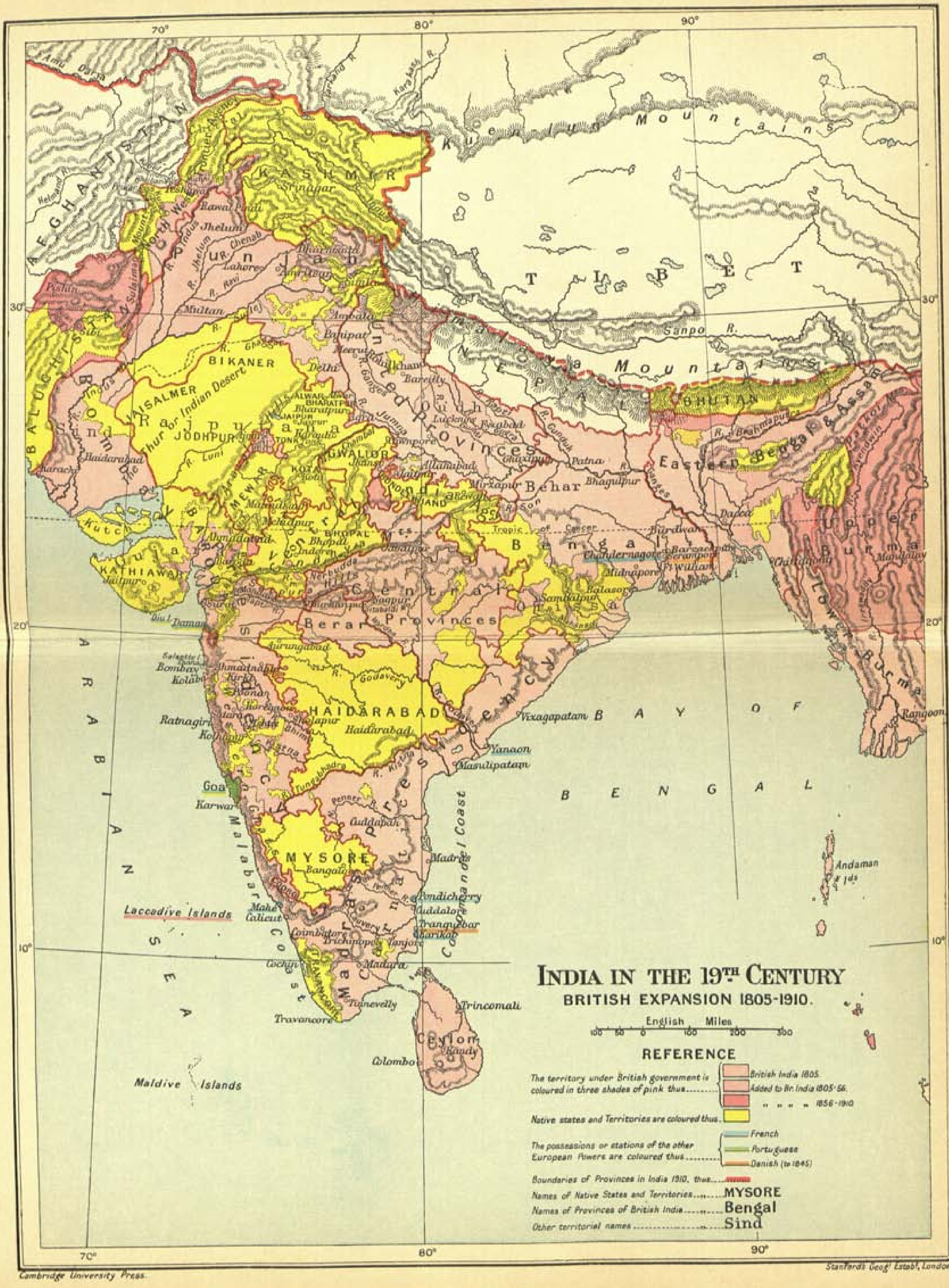
Stanford's Geogl. Estabt. London

Map 121

MAP 122

India

in the 19th century
British Expansion 1805–1910



Map 122

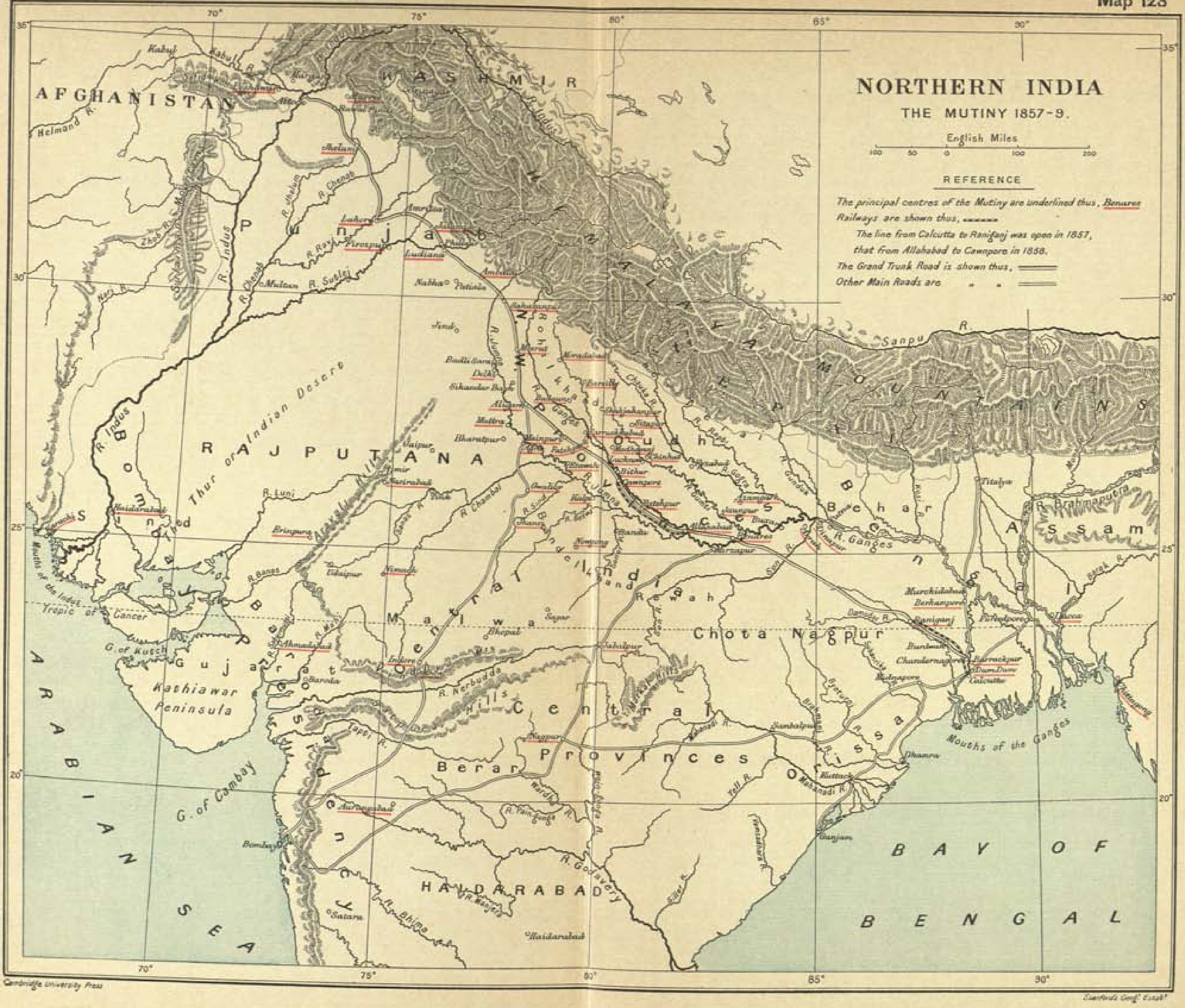
Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London

MAP 123

Northern India

The Mutiny 1857–9


NORTHERN INDIA
THE MUTINY 1857-9.
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200
REFERENCE
The principal centres of the Mutiny are underlined thus, Benares
Railways are shown thus,
The line from Calcutta to Raniganj was open in 1857,
that from Allahabad to Cawnpore in 1858.
The Grand Trunk Road is shown thus,
Other Main Roads are
AFGHANISTAN
KASHMIR
HIMALAYA MOUNTAINS
PUNJAB
RAJPUTANA
Thur or Indian Desert
N. W. PROVINCES
Rohilkhand
Oudh
Behar
Bengal
Assam
Bundelkhand
Central India
Malwa
Rewah
Chota Nagpur
Gujarat
Kathiawar Peninsula
Bombay
Sind
Central Provinces
Berar
Orissa
HAIDARABAD
ARABIAN SEA
BAY OF BENGAL
G. of Cambay
G. of Kutch
Tropic of Cancer
Mouths of the Indus
Mouths of the Ganges
R. Ganges
R. Jumna
R. Indus
R. Sutlej
R. Chenab
R. Jhelum
R. Ravi
R. Luni
R. Chambal
R. Nerbudda
Tapti R.
R. Godavery
R. Bhima
Mahanadi R.
R. Brahmaputra
Sanpu R.
Helmand R.
Kabul R.
Kabul
Peshawar
Attock
Murree
Jhelum
Lahore
Amritsar
Ferozpur
Ludhiana
Phillaur
Jullundur
Ambala
Multan
Nabha
Patiala
Jind
Saharanpur
Meerut
Delhi
Moradabad
Bareilly
Aligarh
Mattra
Shahjahanpur
Sitapur
Agra
Bharatpur
Mainpuri
Fatehgarh
Farrukhabad
Lucknow
Cawnpore
Bithur
Etawah
Gwalior
Kalpi
Fatehpur
Jhansi
Banda
Allahabad
Benares
Jaunpur
Azamgarh
Fyzabad
Mirzapur
Arrah
Dinapore
Nowgong
Saugor
Bhopal
Jabalpur
Jaipur
Ajmir
Nasirabad
Haidarabad
Karachi
Erinpura
Nimach
Udaipur
Ahmadabad
Indore
Mhow
Baroda
Nagpur
Aurangabad
Satara
Sambalpur
Kuttack
Dhamra
Ganjam
Murshidabad
Berhampore
Raniganj
Purneah
Titalya
Dacca
Burdwan
Chandernagore
Barrackpur
Dum Dum
Calcutta
Midnapore
Chittagong
70°
75°
80°
85°
90°
35°
30°
25°
20°

MAP 124

The Western

Frontier of India

and neighbouring countries

with inset

Valley of the Kabul River


THE WESTERN
FRONTIER OF INDIA
AND NEIGHBOURING COUNTRIES
REFERENCE
The limits of the spheres of influence of Russia and Great Britain respectively in Persia, are shown thus_ British Russian
English Miles
50 0 100 200 300
VALLEY OF THE KABUL RIVER
Scale of Miles
RUSSIAN TURKESTAN
TRANS-CASPIAN PROVINCE
KHIVA
BOKHARA
SAMARKAND
FERGHANA
TRANS-CAUCASIA
CASPIAN SEA
PERSIA
KHORASAN
IRAK AJEMI
ARABISTAN
FARS
KERMAN
AFGHANISTAN
BALUCHISTAN AGENCY
KASHMIR
PUNJAB
N.W. FRONTIER PROVINCE
INDIA
RAJPUTANA
UNITED PROVINCES
BOMBAY PRESIDENCY
EASTERN TURKESTAN
CHINESE EMPIRE
TIBET
PERSIAN GULF
GULF OF OMAN
OMAN
Rub el Khali
EL HASA
Tropic of Cancer
G. of Kutch
Kara Boghaz
Kizil-kum
Kara-kum
Amu Daria (R. Oxus)
Sir Daria (Jaxartes)
Great Salt Steppe
Dasht-i-Lut
Desht-i-Margo
Indian Desert
The Thar or Indian Desert
Himalaya Mountains
Kabul R.
R. Indus
R. Sutlej
Kungrat
Khiva
Merv
Bokhara
Samarkand
Khokand
Khojend
Kashgar
Yarkand
Khotan
Baku
Tabriz
Teheran
Hamadan
Ispahan
Yezd
Shiraz
Bushire
Kerman
Bam
Bender Abbas
Meshed
Sarakhs
Zulfikar
Penjdeh
Herat
Andkhui
Balkh
Kunduz
Farah
Kandahar
Kabul
Kohat
Jhelum
Lahore
Amritsar
Multan
Delhi
Agra
Bikaner
Ajmir
Karachi
Hyderabad
Peshawar
Attock
Jalalabad
Gandamak
Landi Kotal
Ali Masjid
Jamrud
Khaibar Pass
Malakand Pass
Chakdarra
Mardan
Tirah
Manama
Bahrein
C. Jask
Mekran
Sistan
50° 55° 60° 65° 70° 75° 80°
25° 30° 35° 40°



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog.l Estab.t

MAP 126

The Dominion of Canada

and Newfoundland


THE
DOMINION OF CANADA
AND
NEWFOUNDLAND
English Miles
REFERENCE TO CANADIAN RAILWAYS
Grand Trunk Pacific Railway, shown thus
Canadian Pacific Railway
Canadian Northern
Intercolonial Railway
ARCTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SIBERIA
ALASKA
GREENLAND
BAFFIN BAY
HUDSON BAY
DAVIS STRAIT
Denmark Strait
Behring Strait
Arctic Circle
Yukon
BRITISH COLUMBIA
ALBERTA
SASKATCHEWAN
MANITOBA
ONTARIO
QUEBEC
LABRADOR
NEWFOUNDLAND
Mackenzie
Ungava
Keewatin
Franklin
Baffin Land
Victoria Land
Prince Albert Land
Banks I.
Ellesmere Land
North Devon I.
Fox Channel
Hudson Str.
James Bay
Lake Winnipeg
Lake Superior
Gulf of St Lawrence
Vancouver I.
Queen Charlotte Islands
C. Farewell
C. Chidley
Hamilton Inlet
Belle Isle
C. Race
St Johns
Halifax
Montreal
Ottawa
Toronto
Boston
Chicago
UNITED STATES

MAP 128

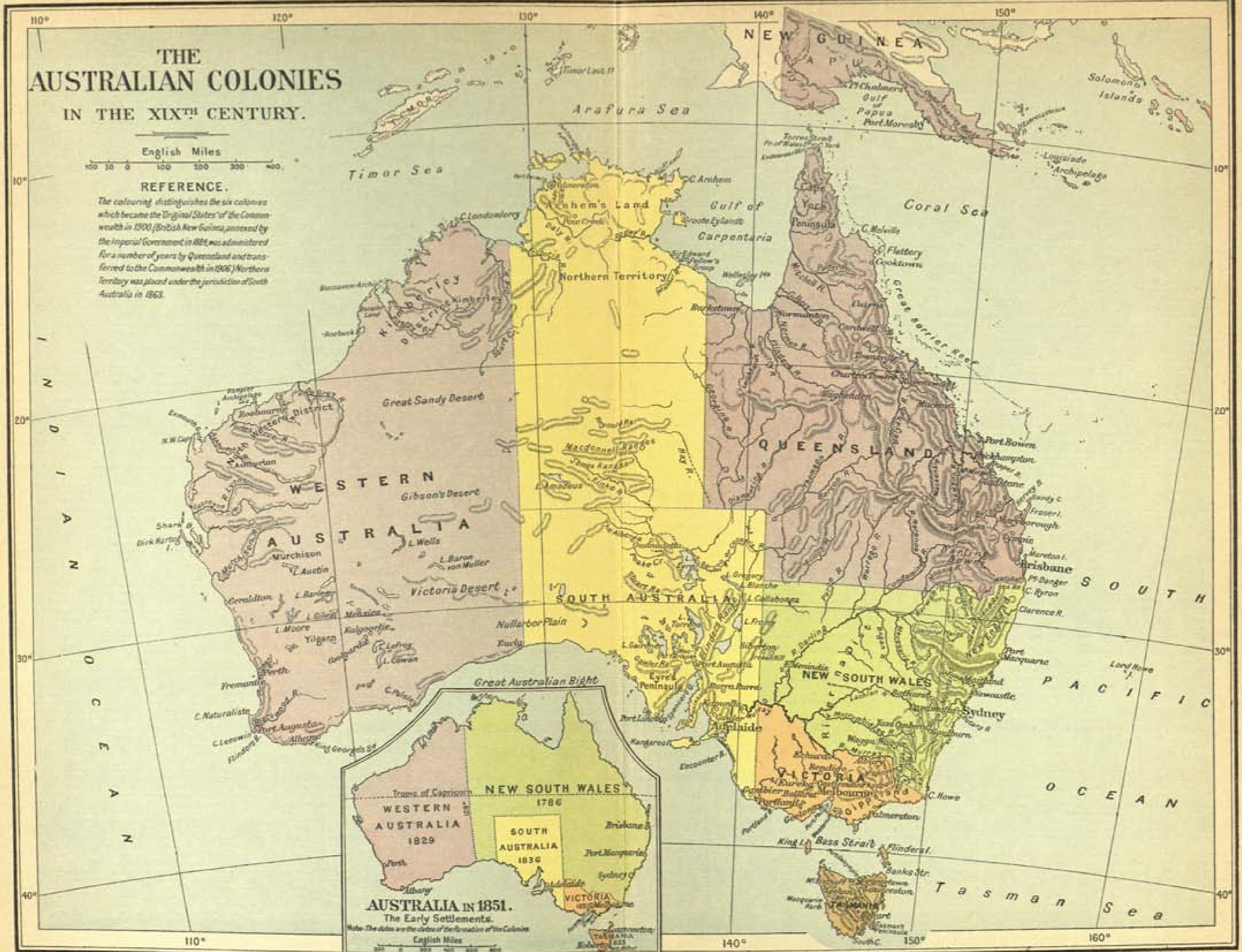
The Australian Colonies

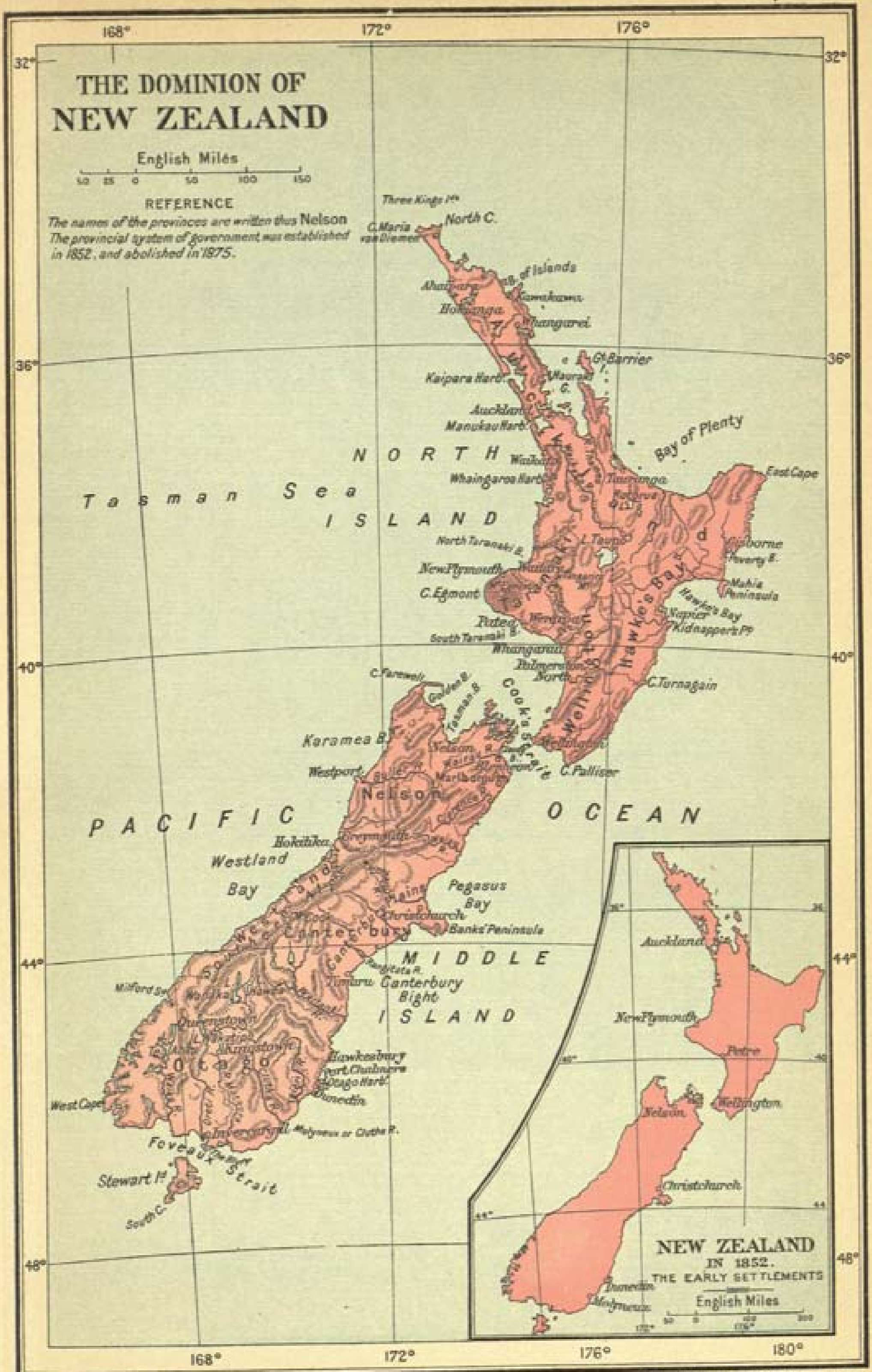
in the 19th century

with inset

Australia in 1851

The Early Settlements


THE
AUSTRALIAN COLONIES
IN THE XIXTH CENTURY.
English Miles
REFERENCE.
The colouring distinguishes the six colonies which became the "Original States" of the Commonwealth in 1900 (British New Guinea, annexed by the Imperial Government in 1884, was administered for a number of years by Queensland and transferred to the Commonwealth in 1906.) Northern Territory was placed under the jurisdiction of South Australia in 1863.
NEW GUINEA
PAPUA
Gulf of Papua
Port Moresby
Solomon Islands
Louisiade Archipelago
Arafura Sea
Timor Sea
TIMOR
Timor Laut I.
Torres Strait
C. Arnhem
Arnhem's Land
Gulf of Carpentaria
Groote Eylandt
Cape York Peninsula
Coral Sea
C. Melville
C. Flattery
Cooktown
Great Barrier Reef
C. Londonderry
Kimberley
Northern Territory
Burketown
Great Sandy Desert
Roebourne
Macdonnell Ranges
James Ranges
L. Amadeus
Finke R.
Hay R.
QUEENSLAND
Port Bowen
Rockhampton
Gladstone
Sandy C.
Fraser I.
Maryborough
Gympie
Moreton I.
Brisbane
Pt. Danger
C. Byron
Clarence R.
WESTERN AUSTRALIA
Gibson's Desert
Shark B.
Dirk Hartog I.
Murchison
L. Austin
L. Wells
L. Baron von Muller
Victoria Desert
Geraldton
L. Moore
Yilgarn
Kalgoorlie
Coolgardie
L. Cowan
Perth
Fremantle
C. Naturaliste
C. Leeuwin
Albany
King George's Sd.
Nullarbor Plain
Eucla
Great Australian Bight
SOUTH AUSTRALIA
L. Eyre
L. Gregory
L. Blanche
L. Callabonna
L. Frome
L. Torrens
L. Gairdner
Flinders Range
Eyre's Peninsula
Port Augusta
Burra Burra
Port Lincoln
Kangaroo I.
Encounter B.
Adelaide
Silverton
R. Darling
NEW SOUTH WALES
Port Macquarie
Lord Howe I.
Maitland
Newcastle
Bathurst
Sydney
Goulburn
Wagga Wagga
Albury
VICTORIA
Ballarat
Bendigo
Echuca
Melbourne
Geelong
Portland
Gippsland
C. Howe
King I.
Bass Strait
Flinders I.
Banks Str.
Launceston
TASMANIA
Macquarie Harb.
Hobart
Tasman Sea
SOUTH PACIFIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
NEW SOUTH WALES 1786
WESTERN AUSTRALIA 1829
SOUTH AUSTRALIA 1836
VICTORIA 1851
TASMANIA 1825
Tropic of Capricorn
Brisbane
Port Macquarie
Sydney
Perth
Albany
Adelaide
Melbourne
Launceston
Hobart
AUSTRALIA IN 1851.
The Early Settlements.
Note. The dates are the dates of the formation of the Colonies
English Miles


THE DOMINION OF
NEW ZEALAND
English Miles
REFERENCE
The names of the provinces are written thus Nelson
The provincial system of government was established in 1852, and abolished in 1875.
Three Kings Is.
North C.
C. Maria van Diemen
Bay of Islands
Kaipara Harb.
Gt. Barrier I.
Auckland
Manukau Harb.
Bay of Plenty
NORTH ISLAND
Tasman Sea
Whaingaroa Harb.
East Cape
North Taranaki B.
New Plymouth
C. Egmont
Gisborne
Poverty B.
Mahia Peninsula
Hawke's Bay
Napier
Kidnappers Pt.
South Taranaki B.
Whanganui
Palmerston North
C. Turnagain
C. Farewell
Cook's Strait
Karamea B.
Westport
Nelson
Marlborough
C. Palliser
Wellington
PACIFIC OCEAN
Hokitika
Greymouth
Westland Bay
Pegasus Bay
Christchurch
Banks' Peninsula
Canterbury
MIDDLE ISLAND
Timaru
Canterbury Bight
Milford Sd.
Queenstown
Otago
Hawkesbury
Port Chalmers
Otago Harb.
Dunedin
West Cape
Invercargill
Molyneux or Clutha R.
Foveaux Strait
Stewart Is.
South C.
NEW ZEALAND
IN 1852.
THE EARLY SETTLEMENTS
English Miles
Auckland
New Plymouth
Petre
Wellington
Nelson
Christchurch
Dunedin
Molyneux
168°
172°
176°
180°
32°
36°
40°
44°
48°

MAP 130

Africa in 1910

with inset

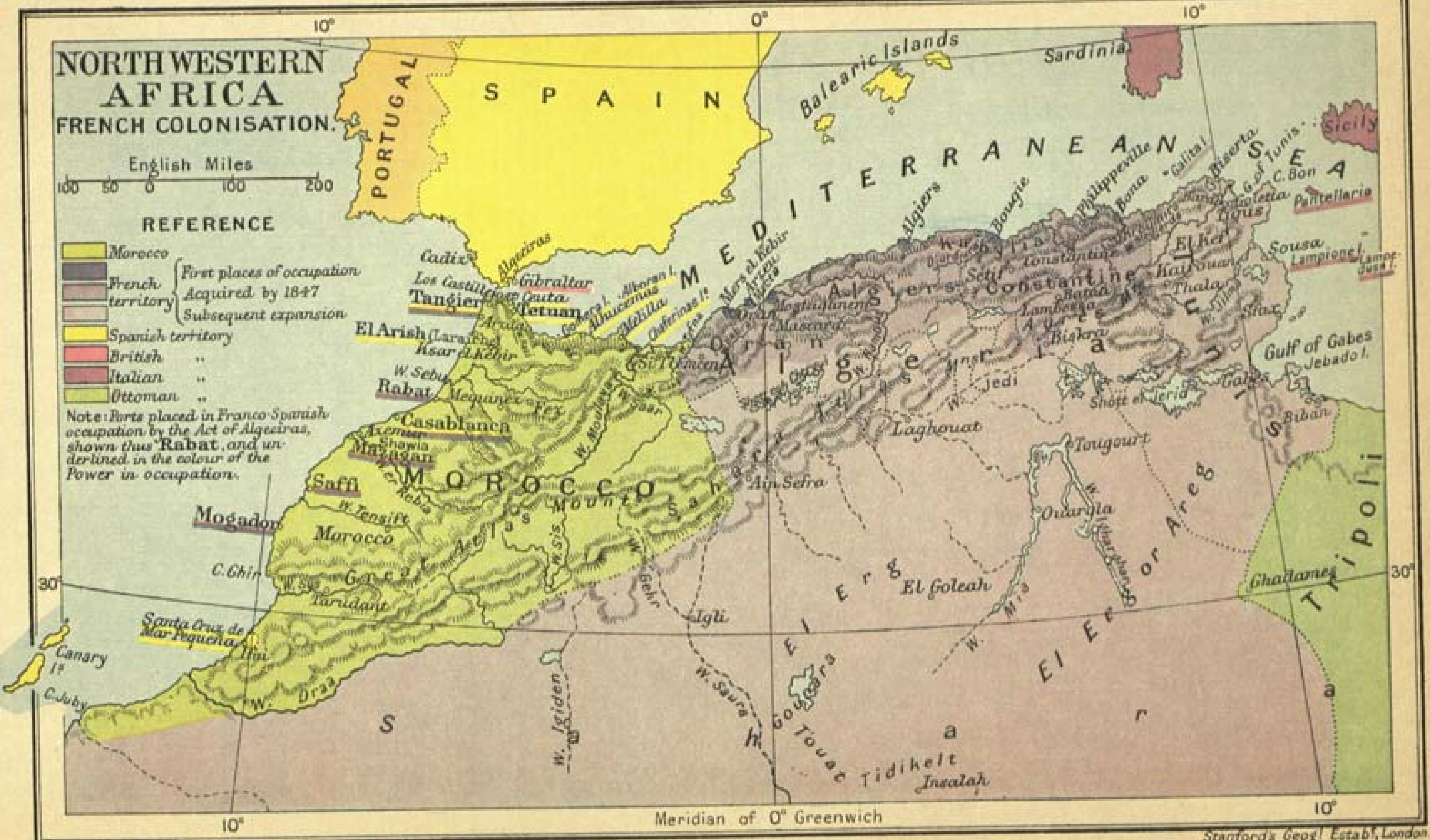
Africa in 1870



Map 130

Cambridge University Press.

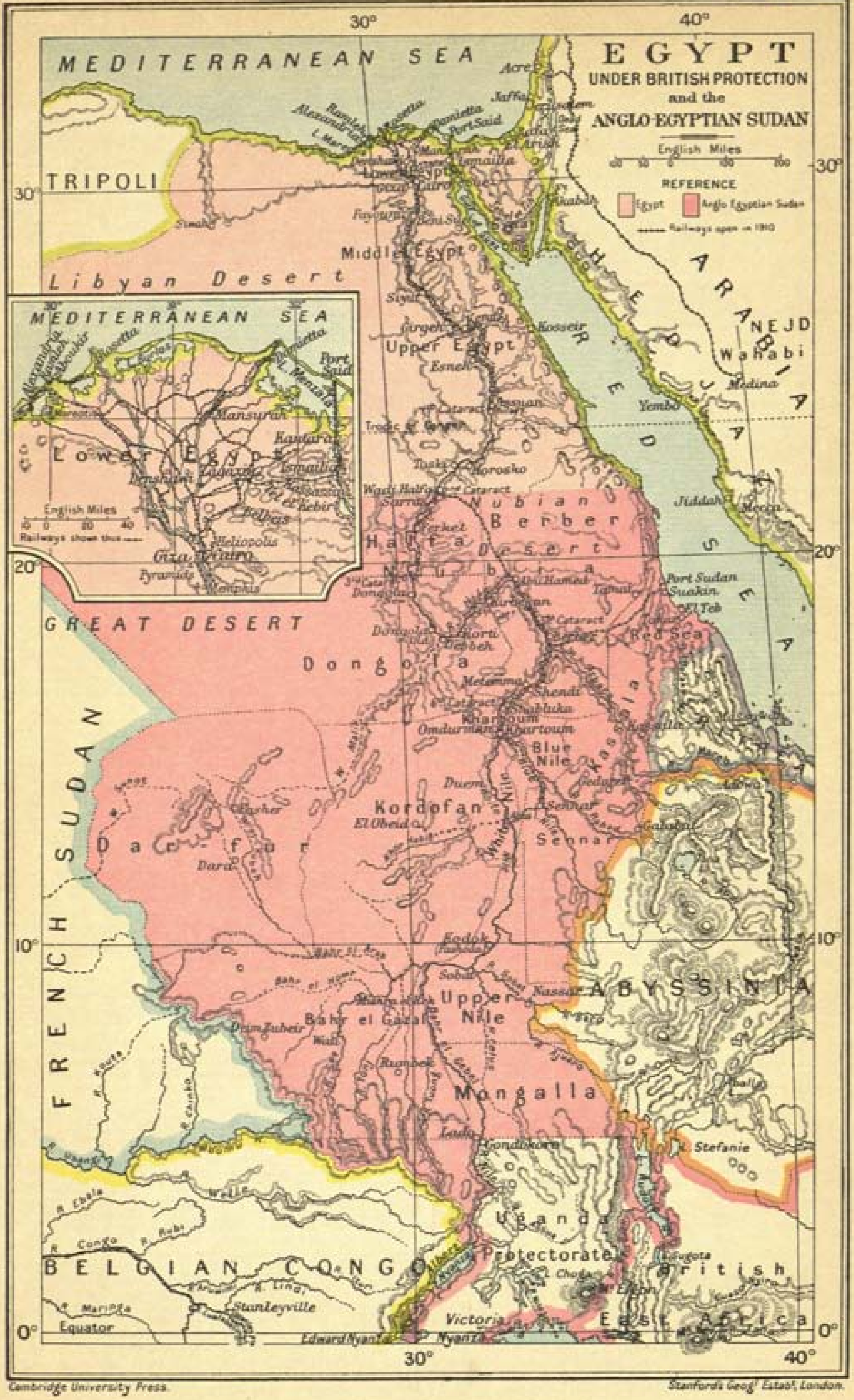
Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.



Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London

Cambridge University Press.

Map 131



Cambridge University Press.

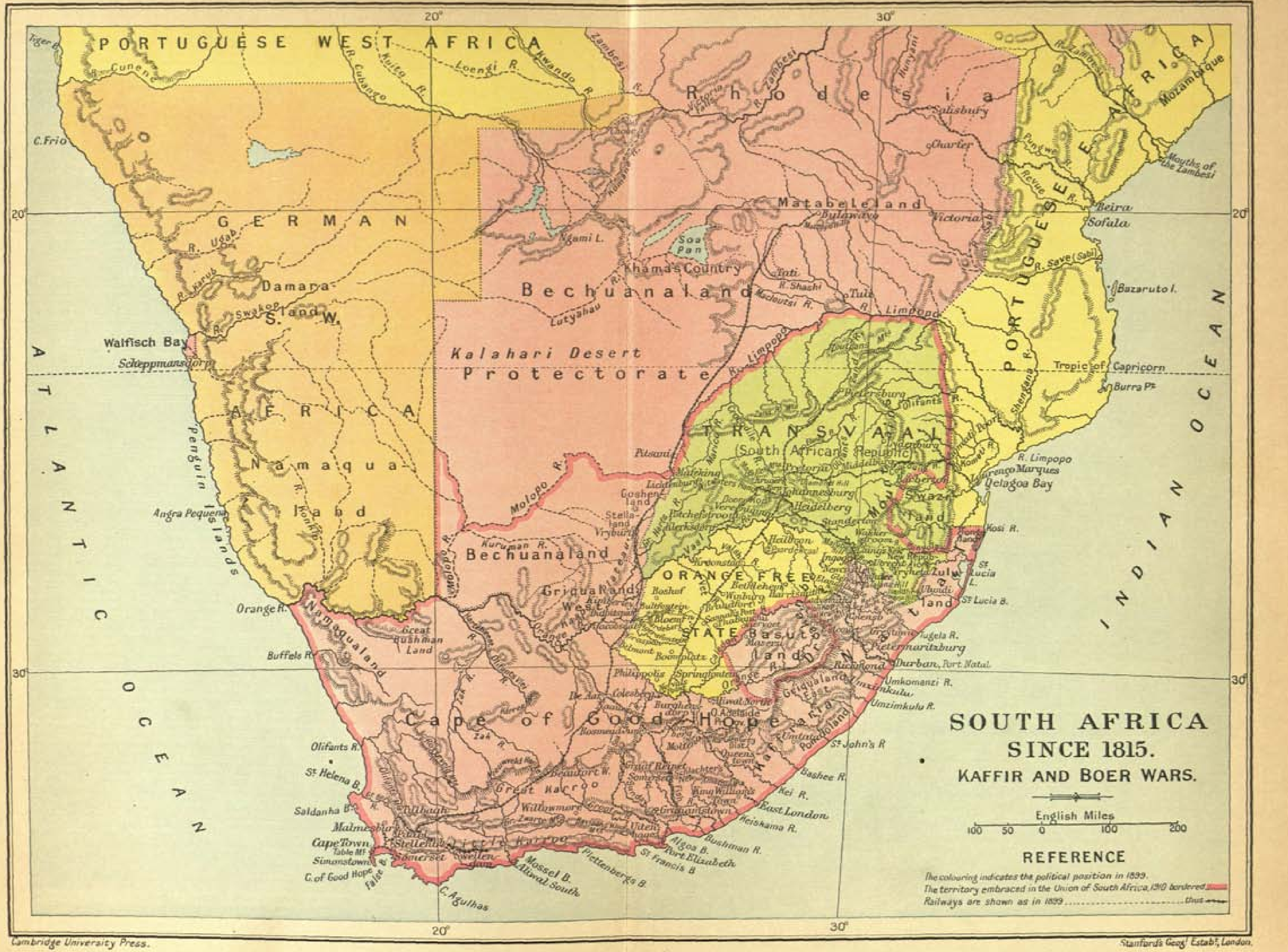
Stanford's Geog¹ Estab¹, London.

MAP 133

South Africa

since 1815

Kaffir and Boer Wars


SOUTH AFRICA
SINCE 1815.
KAFFIR AND BOER WARS.
English Miles
100 50 0 100 200
REFERENCE
The colouring indicates the political position in 1899.
The territory embraced in the Union of South Africa, 1910 bordered
Railways are shown as in 1899 .... thus
PORTUGUESE WEST AFRICA
GERMAN
S. W.
AFRICA
Damara-
land
Namaqua-
land
Rhodesia
Matabeleland
Bulawayo
Salisbury
Victoria
Bechuanaland
Khama's Country
Kalahari Desert
Protectorate
Ngami L.
Soa Pan
TRANSVAAL
(South African Republic)
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Pietersburg
Mafeking
Potchefstroom
Heidelberg
Standerton
Lydenburg
Middelburg
Swaziland
ORANGE FREE
STATE
Bloemfontein
Kroonstad
Winburg
Bethlehem
Basutoland
Griqualand West
Kimberley
Natal
Pietermaritzburg
Durban, Port Natal
Zululand
Griqualand East
Pondoland
Cape of Good Hope
Great Bushman Land
Namaqualand
Great Karroo
Cape Town
Table Mt
Simonstown
C. of Good Hope
C. Agulhas
Mossel B.
Port Elizabeth
Algoa B.
East London
Graaff Reinet
Beaufort W.
Grahamstown
King William's Town
Colesberg
Philippolis
Walfisch Bay
Angra Pequena
Penguin Islands
Orange R.
Olifants R.
St Helena B.
Saldanha B.
C. Frio
Tiger B.
R. Cunene
R. Cubango
Kuito R.
Loengi R.
R. Kwando
R. Zambesi
Limpopo
Molopo R.
Kuruman R.
Vaal
Tropic of Capricorn
Beira
Sofala
Bazaruto I.
Burra Pt
Lourenço Marques
Delagoa Bay
Kosi R.
St Lucia B.
Tugela R.
Umkomanzi R.
Umzimkulu R.
St John's R.
Bashee R.
Kei R.
Keiskama R.
Bushman R.
St Francis B.
Plettenbergs B.
Mouths of the Zambesi
Mozambique
Pungwe R.
Revue R.
R. Save (Sabi)
R. Limpopo
Shengana
Charter
Tuli
Tati
R. Shashi
Macloutsi R.
Lutyahau
Kurumau
Goshen land
Stella-land
Vryburg
Pitsani
Boomplaats
Aliwal North
Queenstown
Burghersdorp
Willowmore
Uitenhage
Malmesbury
Stellenbosch
Somerset
Swellendam
Tulbagh
Aliwal South
Buffels R.
Schepmansdorp
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
20°
30°



Cambridge University Press
Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London
Map 134

MAP 135

South America

1910



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.

MAP 136

Northern Asia

Russian Expansion in the XIXth century



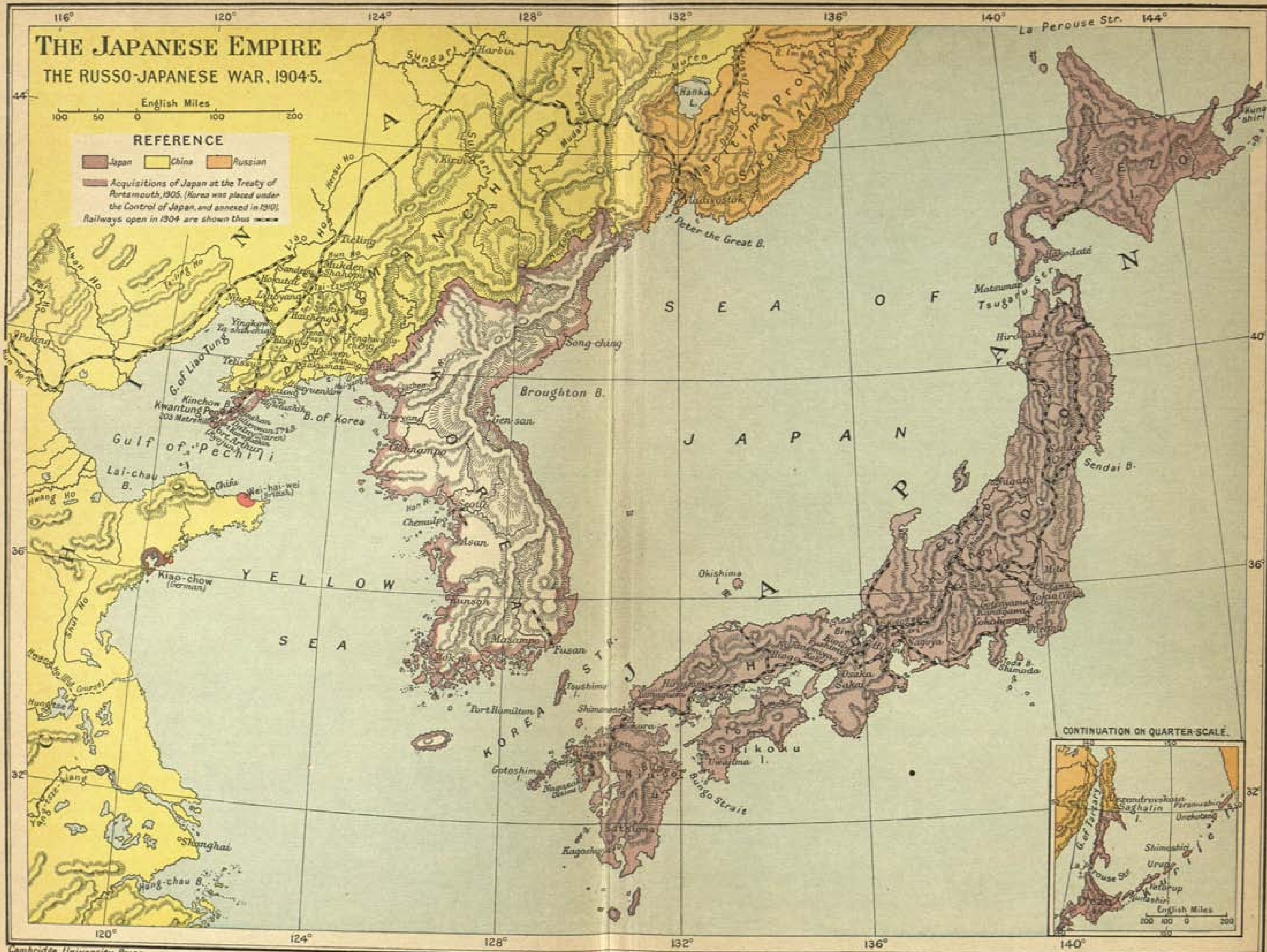
Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab!, London.

MAP 137

The Japanese Empire

The Russo-Japanese War, 1904–5



Cambridge University Press.

Stanford's Geog! Estab! London.

MAP 138

The Chinese Empire

1910

with inset

The Neighbourhood of Peking


THE CHINESE EMPIRE 1910.
English Miles
REFERENCE.
China
Dependencies of China
Japan
Russian
British
German
French
Portuguese
United States
The principal treaty ports and places open to British trade in China & Tibet are underlined thus... Amoy
The Transiberian Railway is shown thus...
The neighbourhood of PEKING
Peking
Tientsin
Taku
English Miles
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
MONGOLIA
Gobi Desert
CHINESE EMPIRE
TIBET
TURKESTAN
MANCHURIA
KOREA
JAPANESE EMPIRE
INDIAN EMPIRE
CHINA
SEA OF OKHOTSK
SEA OF JAPAN
Yellow Sea
Gulf of Bengal
G. of Tonkin
Philippine Islands
Formosa
Saghalin
Kiushiu
Shikoku
Hai nan
SIAM
Kysyl Kum
Kirghiz Steppe
Aral Sea
Balkash
Lena R.
Amur
Yellow R.
Hong-kong
Shanghai
Peking
Kan-su
Shan si
Chi li
Shan tung
Ho nan
Szechwan
Hupeh
Hunan
Kiang si
Kwei chau
Yunnan
Kwang si
Kwang tung
Fukien
An hwei
Che kiang
Kiang su
Shen si
Tsaidam
Kuen-lun Mountains
Altai
Thian shan
Tropic of Cancer
Loochoo Is.

MAP 139

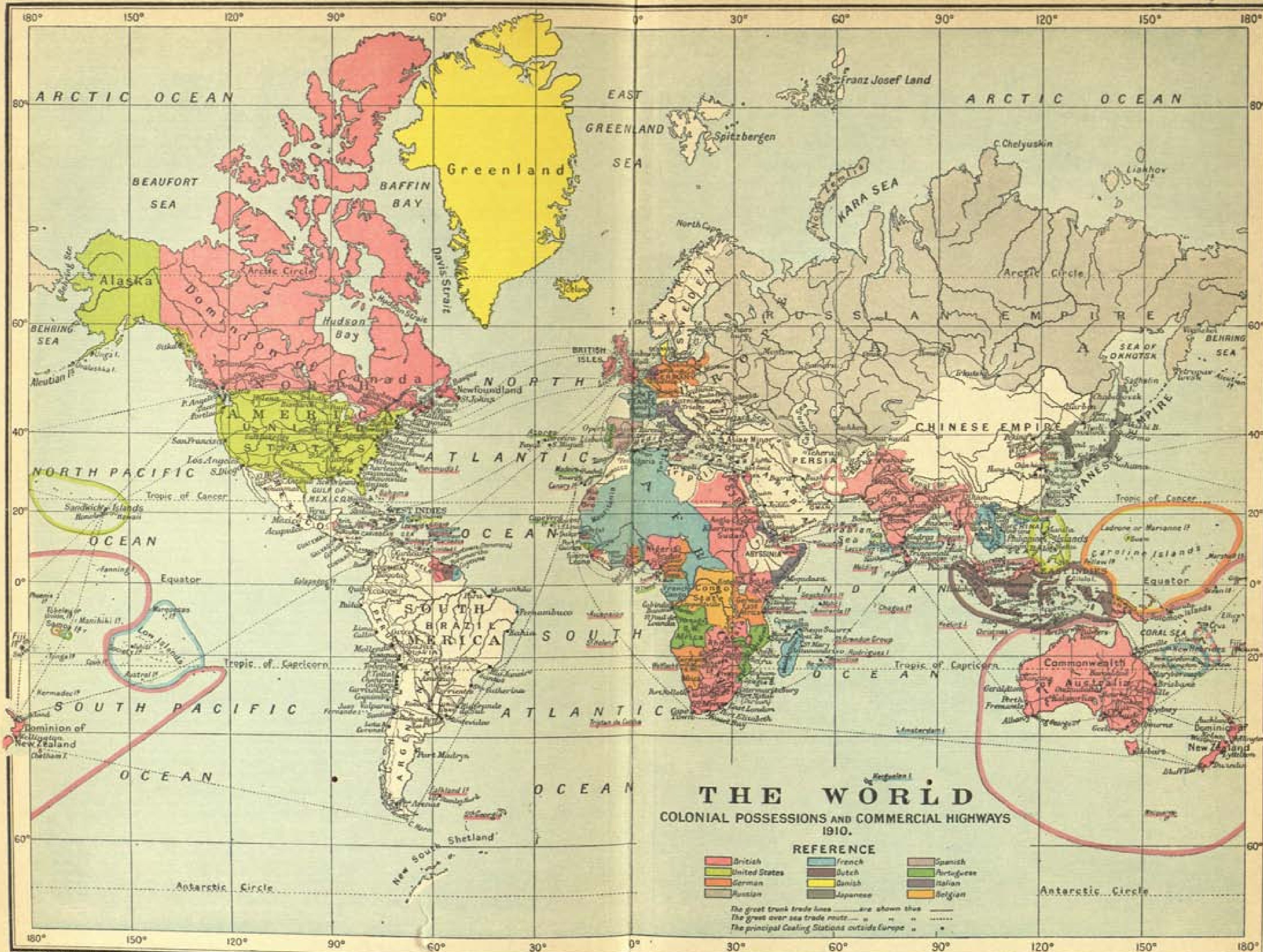
The Pacific Ocean, 1910


THE PACIFIC OCEAN, 1910.
REFERENCE
British Possessions
Chinese
Dutch
French
German
Japanese Possessions
Portuguese
Russian
United States
S I B E R I A
C H I N A
BEHRING SEA
Sea of Okhotsk
Aleutian Islands
Alaska
C A N A D A
British Columbia
Hudson Bay
Baffin Land
U N I T E D S T A T E S
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
CARIBBEAN SEA
West Indies
Sea of Japan
Kurile Islands
Philippine Islands
M I C R O N E S I A
Caroline Islands
Mariana or Ladrone Is
Marshall Islands
Gilbert Is
M E L A N E S I A
P O L Y N E S I A
Equator
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
Hawaii or Sandwich Is (U.S.)
Marquesas Is
Tuamotu or Low Archipelago
Society Is
Cook Is
Fiji Islands
Samoa Is
New Hebrides
Ellice Is
Phoenix Is
Pitcairn I.
INDIAN OCEAN
AUSTRALIA
Western Australia
South Australia
Northern Territory
Queensland
New South Wales
Victoria
Tasmania
TASMAN SEA
NEW ZEALAND
Auckland
Wellington
Christchurch
Dunedin
Chatham I.
Kermadec I.
Norfolk I.
Macquarie I.
Campbell I.
Auckland I.
Borneo
Mindanao
Luzon
Galapagos Is
Clipperton I.
San Francisco
Monterey
Valparaiso
Santiago
Concepcion
Valdivia
Chiloe I.
Falkland Is
Tierra del Fuego
East 180° West

MAP 140

The World

Colonial Possessions and
Commercial Highways, 1910



Cambridge University Press.
Stanford's Geogl. Estabt., London.

MAP 141

Europe
in 1910



Cambridge University Press
Stanford's Geog! Estabt, London.

INDEX TO MAPS.

(For list of Maps see ante, pp. vii—xi.)

Where dark type is used, the reference is to the lines of latitude and longitude forming the bottom and left-hand boundaries of the section of the map in which the name will be found.

Names of clans and tribes are printed in italics.

Ins. = Inset.

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Europe - History + Modern Period